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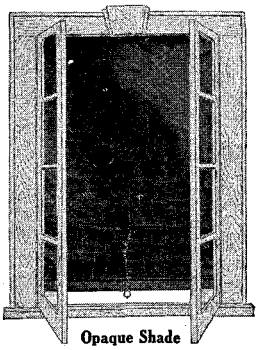
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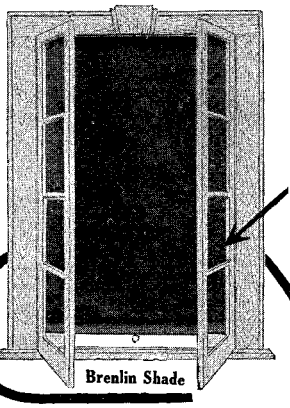
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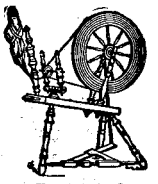
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The Outlook

12 JUNE, 1909

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LAWRENCE F. ABBOTT, PRESIDENT. WILLIAM B. HOWLAND, TREASURER. KARL V. S. HOWLAND, SECRETARY
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GERMAN OPINION AND OUR TARIFF-MAKING

No foreign country has been more in the minds of our tariff-makers than Germany. The progress of the tariff proposals in Congress is also being closely watched by Germans. They deem the numerous reductions of duties made in the bills before Congress to be largely illusory, since the reductions are either in raw products or half-manufactured goods, of which they send little to us. The large reductions in the iron and steel schedules have not attracted much attention among German manufacturers because, with the exception of a few specialties, there is not much of a market in the United States for their products. As the advances made on certain articles of German export would seem more than to counterbalance the reductions, there is some disappointment in Germany. This was enhanced last week by the reception given in the United States Senate to information furnished by the German Government concerning wages in that country. The conditions of manufacture in both Germany and the United States are, of course, largely influenced by the wages scale. Early last December the State Department requested from the German Foreign Office a statement of economic conditions in Germany. The Foreign Office communicated with each of the Federate States which compose the Empire, ultimately obtained the information desired, and transmitted it to the State Department. As soon as this became known, certain German newspapers attacked their Government for yielding to the American request for a report on wages, and thus arming Germany's competitors with trade secrets which might make it possible for Congress to raise the new American tariff to a level where German goods could not be exported to the United States. On our side of the Atlantic the German Government's report has also been criticised. Last week in the United States Senate Senator Aldrich, of Rhode Island, protested against the communication from the German Foreign Office as an "impertinence," because of its relation to the pending tariff bill, despite the fact that the "impertinence" had been in direct response to our Government's request. Mr. Aldrich's opinion was also voiced by Mr. Depew. This display of opinion was hardly effaced by the Senators' subsequent eulogies of the German Emperor, Government, and people, and was thus characterized by Senator Stone, of Missouri, as reported:

> It is a circumstance to be regretted that a Senator possessing the high influence of the Senator from Rhode Island should so far forget himself and forget the proprieties, however great the exigencies of the moment, as to offend a friendly government without provocation. The German Government understands the proprieties of friendly intercourse as well as we do, and it would be the last to obtrude itself with a view to influencing legislation here or elsewhere.
>
> The Senator from New York [Senator Depew] also emphasized and coincided with the views of the Senator from Rhode Island on this question. I wish it might be known that they stand alone in this opinion in the Senate, and that they do not express the sentiment of the Senate, or enjoy its support in the position they have taken.

SENATOR ROOT AND LEMONS

Last week the tariff-makers in the United States Senate reached the apparently rather unimportant subject of lemons. But it speedily proved to be one of real importance. It provoked as significant a debate as has been heard on the tariff situation. Most of our lemons come from abroad; in fact, at times California is powerless to supply the New York market.

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Under the McKinley Act the duty on lemons was twenty-five cents a box; under the Wilson Act, thirty cents; under the Dingley Act, eighty cents; under the Payne Bill, a dollar; and under the Senate proposal as made by its Finance Committee, a dollar and twenty cents. Thus the Finance Committee has acceded to the Californians' plea for more protection, and proposes to add fifty per cent to the duty. The increase would be startling in the case of a non-profitable industry. It is doubly striking in the case of so profitable an industry as is that of growing and selling lemons. Some California growers are already making a hundred and fifty per cent on their investment. Furthermore, the entire increase of consumption by the American people during a ten-year period of development of population and purchasing power has been reflected in the domestic production and shipment. This has been more than trebled, while importations have remained stationary. Most of these facts were stated by Senator Root, of New York. In the consumer's interest, he defied the forces which would not only maintain the present duties, but increase them. The growers' interests were defended by Senator Flint, of California. He declared that their average profit since the Dingley law went into effect was about four per cent. He admitted that over sixty per cent. of his State's product is marketed by one concern—the California Fruit Growers' Association—but asked whether the American people would not rather trust a corporation organized by the farmers than an importers' trust. Mr. Root replied: "I do not want the American people to trust either. I want the American people . . . to protect themselves." Senator Borah inquired, "How are you going to do it?" Mr. Root replied:

> I will tell the Senator from Idaho how. . . . The market situation is, of course, affected by the freight situation. The lowest cost at which a box of foreign lemons has for the past twenty-five years been laid down in the city of New York under the present duty is $2.42, and the cost which the lemon-growers of California themselves declare they can lay lemons down for is $2.32; that is to say, taking the lowest figures for the foreign lemons and their own figures for California lemons, those California lemons meet the foreign lemons at the water's edge on the Atlantic with an advantage of ten cents a box. . . . And still, with that advantage at the extreme eastern edge of the country the lemon-grower of California asks that a fifty per cent increase in duty be made! . . . But the California product is not sufficient to supply the market. The California product is less than one-half what the market demands. . . . The growth of the industry has been very rapid under the circumstances. It has not yet come to a point where the Californians can supply one-half of the product for the United States, but they are rapidly approaching that point, and they are approaching it with a liberal profit under the existing Dingley rates. I see no justification whatever in giving them an additional rate which will enable them to put their price still higher, over and above the present large and liberal profits which they are making, and at the same time cut off the foreign importation so as to produce a scarcity here and put up the prices still higher. It seems to me that it tends to produce an artificial and undesirable condition in the lemon trade, and that it is wholly without justification in the rules which we are applying to the tariff.

Yet this defender of the consumer was outvoted, 44 to 28. The proposal of the new duty is to exclude the foreign product. A frequent result of the tariff, namely, class legislation, could hardly have had a better example.

THE MERIT SYSTEM AND THE CONSULAR SERVICE

Mr. Knox, Secretary of State, has taken the first step in his plan of consular service reorganization. He has made public a list of fifty changes. Twenty-seven of these are promotions, twenty-three are appointments of new men. President Taft and Secretary Knox are determined to put the consular service on an absolutely business basis. In the first place, all the changes among the present officers are promotions. Particular attention is directed to the office, included in Secretary Knox's list, which has never before been affected by the merit system—that of the Consul-Generalship at London. Hitherto this post has always been regarded as a political office, and nearly always has been given to some prominent party worker. At one time its salary, fees, and emoluments aggregated over fifty thousand dollars. Revision in the fee system halved its value; but subsequently, when the consular service was reorganized by Sec-

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retary Root, all the Consul-Generals and Consuls were accorded salaries without fees. Now the spoils system receives an added shock in the news that the Consul-Generalship at London is for the first time to be filled from the consular ranks. The new Consul-General is Mr. John L. Griffiths, of Indiana, at present Consul at Liverpool. By this appointment President Taft and Secretary Knox have indicated their intention to make the *entire* consular service a permanent institution. All the higher places are to be filled by persons promoted from lower consular offices. This crowns the work of the McKinley and Roosevelt administrations, under which our consular service enjoyed a remarkable period of continuity. The natural result has been the establishment of a standard of character, ability, and efficiency never before known. The second evidence of the merit system is seen in the fact that all the new appointments were based upon it, following ex-Secretary Root's appointments, which were the result of a new process of selection by prescribing a limit as to age, by excluding political considerations, by providing for original appointments only to the lower grades, and, above all, by requiring an examination. But the examination standard cannot be applied unless a considerable body of young men have facilities for preparation which may enable them to come up to such a standard. The Secretary of State has latterly had an increased supply of good consular material, due in no slight degree to the special education of the best candidates at a variety of institutions all over the country, such, for instance, as the Harvard School of Commerce and the George Washington University's school for the training of young men directly for the consular service.

STRIKES IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE

One strike against a transportation company has been quickly followed by another. The striking firemen on the Georgia Railroad, who protested against the supplanting of white men by negroes at lower wages, resumed work a week ago last Saturday under the conditions which obtained before the strike was begun. The issue, it was understood, would be submitted to arbitrators. Before this truce was made known or trains were running again on the Georgia Railroad, a strike was called on the Philadelphia Rapid Transit Company's lines. The men employed on the trolley cars of that Company were dissatisfied with their wages and with the arrangement of their hours of labor. They wanted the liberty of buying their uniforms where they pleased; and they desired the right of presenting their grievances to the Company through a representative committee. The Company, which had just announced an advance of one cent an hour in the pay of the men, to take effect on July 1, declined to enter into any negotiations. The officials of the Company declared that the leaders of the men were not really representatives of the men, but rather of an outside union. Apparently, however, the officials of the Company were unwilling to suggest any method of settling the dispute except by the submission of the employees. Thereupon the strike was called, and most of the men, whether they belonged to the union or not, went out. The sympathy of the people of Philadelphia was inclined toward the strikers. The demand of the employees that they should be allowed to negotiate with the Company through their own committee did not seem unreasonable, and the statement of the leader of the strike that the men would go back to work as soon as the Company agreed to confer with the men's representatives put the Company in the position of declining to consider any interests but its own. The action of the men, moreover, in arranging to leave their work so as not to allow the cars to obstruct the public streets gave further ground for public favor. On the other hand, the traction company has earned unpopularity. The favor in which the Republican ring of Philadelphia was supposed to hold the Company did nothing to make partisans of the Company among the disinterested people of the city. For the first three or four days of the strike there was comparatively little turbulence, and what there was could not be traced to the strikers themselves. Nevertheless, as the days went by there was apparently an increasing number of disturbances reported. How far the men on strike were respon-

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sible for the disorder and violence is uncertain; it is certain, however, that a large part was caused by that irresponsible element in the population which always makes itself conspicuous on an occasion of this kind. Mayor Reyburn, who is a creature of the Republican machine, was, in the early stages of the strike, an apologist for the Company. He stated that he did not foresee any general tie-up, reminded the employees (rather than the officers) of the Company that they were in a measure servants of the people, and declared that the Company would give the men the first consideration. The city's transportation lines were, however, soon tied up, and even the elevated lines became involved. Under the plea that the increasing disturbance required his intervention, Mayor Reyburn undertook to act as intermediary between the men and the Company. The fact is that Primary Day in Philadelphia was coming on apace, and the Republican machine was not too stupid to understand how threatening to its own supremacy was such a condition of affairs as existed in the city. On the day before the primary was held it was announced that a settlement had been reached. According to this agreement the Company consented to confer with a committee of the employees on the question of working hours and working conditions, conceded to the employees the right to buy their uniforms from any one of five reputable clothiers, consented to take back all former employees, and promised to hold to their former announcement of a raise of wages. Such a dispute as this ought never to be decided by industrial war. It is an eminently suitable subject for arbitration. Some day the public will insist that public service corporations and their employees shall find some other method of settling their differences than an open quarrel at the expense of the whole community.

CITY CONGESTION AND CITY PLANNING

The National Congress on City Planning held at Washington recently, the call for which was signed by well-known citizens from New England to California, was attended by delegates from twenty States. During the sessions of the Congress the exhibit on the same subject that had been shown for two weeks previously in the Twenty-second Regiment Armory, New York City, was open in Washington. The exhibit was under the direction of the Committee on Congestion of Population in New York and of the Municipal Arts Society of New York. Charts, maps, and photographs from thirty American and foreign cities were shown to illustrate the development of public buildings and municipal art on the one side, and on the other the growth of slums and congestion and the relation of tenements to disease. Most of the speakers who reported on what American cities were doing were obviously interested chiefly in the æsthetic side of the problem. They told of the progress in the construction of parks and boulevards, in the improvement of the character of buildings, and in the development of group plans. Other speakers were concerned with the tremendous problems growing out of the congestion of population. Evidently both phases of city development are naturally considered together, for both require the development of a comprehensive city plan to take the place of the haphazard growth that has characterized American municipalities. It was noteworthy that the speakers were constantly going abroad for their illustrations of what cities might do. Thus, Mr. John Nolen, of Cambridge, Massachusetts, pointed out that the poorest workingman in Europe has certain advantages which the wealthiest cannot command in America. "Fine city streets," he said, "orderly railroad approaches and surroundings, truly beautiful public buildings, open green squares and plazas, refreshing water fronts, ennobling statuary, convenient and ample playgrounds, numerous parks and boulevards, art museums, theaters, opera-houses, and concert halls—all these in Europe are free or so nearly free that they are easily available for all the people." As to the problems connected with congestion, it was urged that land in certain city districts is becoming too valuable to use for housing purposes, and that there must be development of rapid and cheap—not merely reasonable—transit facilities so that the population can be scattered. In connection with this

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development it may be necessary to set aside factory zones, and so scatter the factories away from congested centers. It was suggested that conditions might be improved by rigid tenement laws, adapting the codes to localities, by limiting the density of population on a given area, and by devising a system of progressive taxation of land values that would discourage speculation in land and remove one potent cause of overcrowding. Mr. Marsh partly summed up the suggestions in a closing address of the Congress, in which he said: "We may frankly say that city planning is fundamentally a health and hence an economic proposition. It recognizes: (1) That sunlight to fight disease should be placed within the reach of the workingman; (2) that home with its significance is to be retained as the right of the American citizen; (3) that the enormous tribute of disease due to land speculation and exploitation must be checked by the only power—the government; (4) that the city should not spend money futilely to secure land, but should secure land while it is reasonably cheap and when the government can afford healthy conditions. American cities have in the main capitulated to the real estate interests. They are now summoned to conserve the health, well-being, and morals of the community to which the city plan is essential." The Congress adopted a resolution for the formation of a committee to arrange for a fuller National conference on city planning and the congestion problem to be held next winter, and to submit to that conference a well-considered project for developing comprehensive city planning in America. The committee is to be made up of representatives of the Committee on Congestion of Population, the American Society of Civil Engineers, American Institute of Architects, American Society of Landscape Architects, League of American Municipalities, American Civic Association, and the National Conference of Charities and Correction.

UNEMPLOYMENT
SOME OF ITS EFFECTS

One of the Commissions created by the New York Legislature in its session lately adjourned is charged with the duty of studying the causes and effects of unemployment, possible remedies for it, and the equally important subject of employers' liability. The report of the State Prison Commission for 1908 states that the number of admissions to the prisons of the State for that year increased over twenty-one thousand (from 97,619 to 118,647). Commenting upon these statistics, the report says that the present method of sending "vagrants" to jail in many cases amounts to imprisoning a man for being poor. "Many of the men so committed were simply out of work and out of money; they were not criminals, and needed, not punishment, but pity and relief. No public policy requires that such men be sent to prison." The report of the State Charities Aid Association for the same year shows the largest annual increase of the insane in the State's history. This increase was nearly twice as great as the increase of 1907 (1,414 as against 741, the total number of cases in public and private institutions being 30,507). Similar tendencies are observable in the reports of other departments of the State having to do with the dependent, defective, and delinquent members of society. It is estimated that the increased cost to the State for poor relief during the period of depression will be probably three million dollars. This refers to general relief of all kinds throughout the State, and not to the direct appropriation of the State for the support of its own institutions. Reports from superintendents of the poor and from charitable institutions all show increased expenditures due to the period of unemployment following the financial panic of October, 1907. Like evidence is obtainable from all private charitable and philanthropic societies. In brief, the cost to society for caring for those whom long-continued unemployment has thrown upon its resources foots up to a staggering amount. This does not include either the cost of those who, for years to come, will continue to be a burden to the State; or the cost through a deterioration of our labor supply and in the loss of some of that labor itself. Scientific investigations of social facts and industrial conditions prove conclusively that the upward curve of pauperism, showing its increase, follows very closely—within one year at the latest—the curve of unem-

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ployment. As good an authority as John Mitchell says that "unemployment is a great social disease, and, as far as my experience teaches me, is growing in extent and seriousness. We cannot afford in this country to build up a permanent army of unemployed; something should be done, and that immediately, to arrest this tendency." With this conclusion The Outlook agrees. It believes that the high price paid by society for unemployment, as well as the growing seriousness of the problem of liability in cases of industrial accidents, justifies the passage of the bill providing for a Commission of Fourteen, three to be appointed by the President of the Senate, five by the Speaker of the Assembly, and six by the Governor. The Outlook is also of the opinion that this action of the New York Legislature on these two vital subjects is of great importance; and that, together with the creation of the Industrial Commission in Illinois, on whose report we comment below, it will have far-reaching consequences by influencing social legislation in other States.

THE HURT OF UNWISE FRIENDS

The chief product of the Conference on the status of the negro, which was held in New York last week, was the letter which Mr. Thomas Wentworth Higginson sent declining the invitation to attend. The announcement of the Conference made it clear that it was intended as the inception of a movement of agitation. Colonel Higginson is one of the few surviving Abolition leaders; in the Civil War he was the commander of the first black regiment; and ever since the Civil War he has been active in urging the negro's cause. It is therefore particularly significant when Mr. Higginson writes: "In 1868 and ever since I have regarded the indiscriminate extension of the suffrage to an entire class as a class, whether negroes or others, to be politically inexpedient; that is, not conducive to the general interest, which in this particular is more important than the interest of the individual." Rather than strive for a political status which under existing law he cannot attain, the negro, in Mr. Higginson's opinion, should turn himself to "his industrial and educational development." Mr. Higginson recognizes "that no white community will ever consent to the political supremacy of either the black man or the colored man or the yellow man." In particular Mr. Higginson considers the present time as an inappropriate time for agitation. He recognizes the value of Mr. Taft's purpose to bring North and South together; and therefore he deplores a new organization which might only embarrass and complicate the President's action. Mr. Higginson is one of a great number of genuine friends of the negro race who have discerned in unwise agitation on behalf of that race as serious an obstacle to race advancement as any action of the race's open enemies. Mr. Seth Low and others, who have done much for the advancement of the colored people in America, also declined to attend this Conference on the ground, to use Mr. Low's phrase, that they could not think it very helpful to emphasize only the points of offense. Mr. Higginson expressed the right view regarding the way of treating what seems to be injustice to a race when, a few years ago, he wrote concerning separate schools for negroes and whites, "The first great step is to have public schools at all, either for whites or blacks." The real friends of the negro are those who help him, not to fight his enemies, but to make friends.

A CHAUFFEUR CONVICTED OF MANSLAUGHTER

William Darragh, the chauffeur who ran down and killed a boy thirteen years of age on Morningside Avenue, New York City, last March, was convicted of manslaughter in the first degree by a jury in the Court of General Sessions, and has been sentenced to confinement in the State prison for not less than seven nor more than twenty years. Darragh was indicted for murder in the first degree; the jury was out for nearly two hours, and it is said that at no time did any of the jurors express themselves in favor of acquittal or any verdict less severe than that which they finally rendered. On the night of the accident the boy was playing in the street with other boys when an automobile driven by Darragh approached them at what the witnesses agreed was a terrific speed,

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swerved from the middle of the street directly upon the boy, struck him in the back and dragged him half a block, breaking both his legs, fracturing his skull, and inflicting internal injuries. Darragh slackened his speed for a moment and then dashed on at a more rapid gait than before. He left the city, and was finally arrested in Port Arthur, Texas. This is, we believe, the first case in which a reckless chauffeur, inflicting death on a highway, has received a sentence commensurate with his offense. Taken in connection with the large number of arrests which have recently been made in New York, and the apparently serious determination of the police to enforce the law governing automobiles on the highways and to protect the public, there is every reason to believe that the day of manslaughter in the streets has passed, and that there will be a great reduction in the number of accidents. This conviction has not come an hour too soon. Many chauffeurs have been guilty of the same offense in the streets of New York, and ought to have had the same punishment. Notice has now been given to chauffeurs that no leniency will be shown them by the courts. Darragh's fate is a hard one; but harder still was the fate of the boy whom he killed and of the parents to whom he has brought lifelong sorrow. The plea that the chauffeur had in his mind no intention to destroy human life has no place in such cases. Every chauffeur who drives his machine at a dangerous rate through the streets assumes the possibility of manslaughter, and must be held responsible for his deeds. Under no circumstances has any man a right to make the highways, in the city or the country, dangerous. If he does, he takes the chances of manslaughter; the specific intent is in his general disregard of the safety of the people about him. It is a very low or a very dangerous type of mind that will take such chances; and such a man, no matter what his intentions, is, to all intents and purposes, a criminal. A rigorous enforcement of the law, a rigorous supervision of chauffeurs, and swift and certain punishment inflicted whenever the law is broken, will deliver the country from the speed-maniacs who have overshadowed its highways for the last two or three years. And it may be added that there is no more contemptible person than the man who runs down another and then puts on speed and runs away from his victim. Such brutal cowards deserve no mercy. The appeal to the jury not to be influenced in reaching a verdict by "the intense public feeling existing against automobile speeders" fell, as it ought to have fallen, on deaf ears. It would be a very dull and indifferent community in which there would not be intense feeling against these murderous lawbreakers.

A PROTECTOR OF CHILDREN

Among the candidates for re-election to the Cook County Circuit Bench at Chicago this year is the Hon. Julian W. Mack. Judge Mack has been known since his brilliant career in the Harvard Law School not only as a young lawyer of great acumen, but as a young philanthropist of practical wisdom and high ideals. Doubtless his most conspicuous humanitarian service has been as Judge of the Juvenile Court, and he has been fitly called by one of the Chicago papers "an exponent of humanity in law." The Chicago Juvenile Court is of special interest to all persons who are trying to protect children and youth, as it is the first great example of the now world-wide protest against holding a child legally answerable for those misdeeds which are palpably due to the personal or civic neglect of his elders. No one who has watched the Juvenile Court movement, with its revolutionary abandonment of the doctrine of punishment, its substitution of the woman probation officer for the policeman, can have failed to realize that a most important social experiment is under way. This experiment must depend for its success, for acceptance as a method, upon the wisdom and sympathy and legal ability of the judges under whom it proceeds. These qualities Judge Mack has contributed. His interpretation of the strict legal questions involved has been masterly, and has compelled confidence and respect for the Juvenile Court in conservative quarters, while his fine human understanding of the mind of a child has given to the routine work of his court a wonderful effectiveness. Doubtless no American has done more to secure for the

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movement legal respectability in this country and abroad than has Judge Mack. In Illinois the Circuit Bench is in a sense responsible for the Juvenile Court, because a judge from among its number is selected annually by the Circuit Judges to preside over the Juvenile Court. Therefore it is felt by the Chicago friends of the Juvenile Court that it is especially important to re-elect Judge Mack to the Circuit Bench, although it is recognized that he will probably be unable to accept again the arduous duty of Juvenile Court Judge. It is important also for the whole country to retain on the Circuit Bench his advice and interest in the future development of the still experimental phases of the Children's Court.

A GREAT EXPOSITION

Awkward as seems the triple title of the Alaska-Yukon-Pacific Exposition, it would be impossible to express more tersely the character of the great industrial and commercial fair opened on the first day of June, when President Taft at the White House in Washington pressed a telegraphic key of Alaska gold, and thus unfurled banners, started fountains playing, and gave the signal for salutes from the guns of American and Japanese war-ships at Seattle. The objects of the Exposition were stated by Mr. Taft in a telegraphic message congratulating the people of the Northwest on their courage and enterprise. Those objects are "to exploit the natural resources and marvelous wealth of Alaska and the development of trade and commerce on the Pacific slope," and, we may add, especially to bring saliently before the American public the close relations already existing between the Western coast of America and the Eastern coast of Asia and the wonderful possibilities of the future in this direction. Accordingly, not only will Northwestern development be made evident by object-lessons ingeniously devised, such as a mine in actual operation, but there will also be extensive and varied exhibits from the Philippines, Hawaii, Japan, and China, and side by side in a corner of a two-hundred-and-fifty-acre forest of tall firs will lie typical Chinese, Filipino, and Eskimo villages. The money for the undertaking has been subscribed in liberal amounts by the city of Seattle, the State of Washington (the latter gave a million dollars, with the condition that six hundred thousand dollars of this should be used for permanent buildings to be used after the fair is over by the State University), by other Northwestern States, cities, and individuals, by the United States, and even by Japan and China. At the opening of the Exposition a vigorous speech was made by Mr. J. J. Hill, who asserted that the four watchwords of the Republic, words which should be upon the four corner-stones of every public building, are: Equality, simplicity, economy, and justice. The application to actual industrial conditions made by Mr. Hill from these watchwords is of such serious import, especially as coming from a recognized railway "captain of industry," that we quote at some length:

> It needs heroism, it involves the shaking off of ostentatious follies that have already warped our earlier ideals, it may even require a considerable readjustment of our whole industrial system and a reform in our very conception of the relation between a Government and its citizens, before the severe standard of absolute equality before the law can be restored. It demands a new standard of economy in both our public and private expenditure.
>
> It demands the repeal of many laws and the suppression of many of the bills presented to State and Federal Legislatures. So many are there framed to give to one an undue advantage or take away from another a fair field and an equal judgment. It demands the abolition of that most hateful and corroding element in a republic that is called class consciousness. To steer the ship of state among these shifting and conflicting currents, now full speed ahead and now full speed astern, is a task of extraordinary difficulty. Yet unless we can follow the course of equal justice laid down on the chart, shipwreck lies somewhere ahead.
>
> We have complicated our financial system until it encourages the wildest speculation at one moment and at another sinks into business collapse.

At a later date The Outlook will have the pleasure of giving to its readers, not only some account of the picturesque and unusual features of this Exposition, but also an interpretation of its purpose and meaning from the pen of Dr. Stephen B. L. Penrose, the President of Whitman College, than whom no one is better fitted to discuss acceptably this particulur subject.

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SCARE-SHIPS IN ENGLAND

At this season of the year, when the sea-serpent used to make its reappearance at various points on the English coast, German flying-machines are taking its place. They have not as yet appeared above our own horizon; but if reports are to be trusted, they are ravaging the upper air of England; and persons of an imaginative turn of mind are haunted by the whir of their machinery and the ominous significance of their strange comings and goings over the island. Not long ago a policeman saw a powerful air-ship, or, more accurately, scare-ship, passing over Peterborough in the early dawn. One countryman, who had perhaps a touch of reportorial invention, described a squadron of aeroplanes flying the German flag moving silently but irresistibly under the low English sky. Another found the whole countryside lit up by the searchlights of a scare-ship traveling so fast against the wind that it vanished almost as soon as it was seen. Of course these aerial monsters have not omitted to visit Ireland. A Belfast newspaper recently reported the appearance of a scare-ship passing over at a great altitude, its light being visible for about twelve minutes. Wales has not been denied the luxury of a similar spectacle. There also a weird object shaped like a cigar has been seen, lit up by two lights, making a whizzing noise and traveling at a great rate, the lights being instantly extinguished when too many people began to look at it. Meanwhile the New York Sun reports some astonishing discoveries made by a Berlin correspondent, who has found out that the German navy has been experimenting at sea with small air-ships and has made it quite clear that these air-ships can ascend from the vessels and land upon them. There is a rumor that dirigible balloons manned by Germans are making a minute study of the defenses along the east coast; and these rumors are reinforced by a revival of the story, the substance of which was put in the question addressed to the Secretary of War, as to whether there was any truth in the information showing that there are sixty thousand foreign soldiers in England, and that there are in a cellar not far from Charing Cross five thousand stands of rifles and seven million five hundred thousand cartridges. To this may be added the further statement that over five thousand secret German agents are working in England, making a minute study, after the thorough German fashion, of all the details that may be of advantage to an invader. These spies are often Belgian, Swiss, or French, and are inspected every six months; the whole brigade controlled by a well-known member of the German secret police. These be strange and terrible tales; but we shall refuse to believe that the sober English mind is seriously disturbed by them. They are rather the most recent form of that midsummer madness which has exhausted the sea-serpent and now turns its inventive and imaginative eye from the sea to the sky.

THE TRIUMPH OF THE AIR-SHIP

In the rivalry of air-ship and flying-machine each in turn has of late scored triumphs. We have hardly ceased to wonder over the record-breaking feats of the Wright brothers in navigating their marvelous heavier-than-air machines when Count Zeppelin reappears on the scene, and with his new motor-balloon Zeppelin II makes a flight of hundreds of miles. It is true that this flight was not accomplished without disaster, yet the very fact that Count Zeppelin's ship was able to limp (if an air-ship may be said to limp) back from Göttingen shows that this type of air-ship is capable of temporary repair and of getting itself out of difficulties. Count Zeppelin started from his Lake Constance float as usual and steered his ship northward toward Berlin. It was reported that his intention was actually to go to Berlin and back—a journey of over a thousand miles—and the Emperor of Germany and many Berlin people sat up all night hoping to greet the air-ship and its captain; the report, however, was erroneous, and Count Zeppelin later explained that a telegram which misled the Emperor was unauthorized. The actual flight extended from Friedrichshafen on Lake Constance to Bitterfeld, about four hundred miles. At that point Count Zeppelin thought it wiser to start on the return voyage, as the air-ship had lost gas. A landing was attempted on the way back, not from necessity, but as a maneuver

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and for the sake of experience. The outer envelope of the pointed bow of the ship was torn by a tree, but assistance was obtained, and in moderate stages, with two or three incidental landings, the ship sailed back to Friedrichshafen. In all, it is said that some eight hundred and fifty miles were covered within thirty-seven hours. Such a record certainly indicates that the motor-balloon, despite some limitations and some uncertainty, is already a practical machine for long journeys in quick time, and assuredly it must be counted on in planning the strategy of any future war. It was a significant coincidence that in the very week of this flight of Zeppelin II the American Secretary of War, Mr. Dickinson, issued instructions to the chief signal officer of the army to have prepared for future use a comprehensive plan for the protection of the entire Atlantic coast by dirigible balloons and "other air craft"—the last clause indicating an intention to carry on active experiment with aeroplanes as well as with air-ships. The terms "aerial fleets," "aerial corps," and "aerial tactics" have now come into every-day use in all the boards of strategy of great nations.

THE GREEKS AND THE TURKS

The Turkish Government lately sent several battalions to Albania and the Greek frontier. It is impossible to maintain order in those districts with the present insufficient forces. No one realizes this better than does Ferid Pasha, late Grand Vizier and now Minister of the Interior, himself an Albanian. The new Government is beset both by reactionary Mohammedans and by radical Christians. In common with every patriotic member of the new Government, Ferid is endeavoring to make all races and religions live in harmony. But, to be sincere and lasting, any alliance between Greek Christians and the Government may have to be preceded by the grant of practical autonomy to such provinces of Turkey as are unquestionably Greek. The Greeks were the last of the Christian peoples to pass under the Turkish yoke. They were the first to escape from it. Though most of Greece is now independent, a large part of Macedonia, including the Ægean seaboard and a greatnumber of islands, forms the territory of "Unredeemed Hellas." The Greeks are not likely to forget these things. In his "The East End of Europe" (Dutton) Mr. Allen Upward well says: "As long as Europe is educated in reverence for the name of Miltiades and Leonidas there will always be a certain inconsistency on our part in blaming their descendants for manifesting the same spirit. . . . It is difficult to believe that the more purely Greek districts in Macedonia and the islands will not cherish dreams of autonomy and union with the free Kingdom [Greece]. Such aspirations have their root in sentiment; and our own experience shows that they are independent of any considerations of good or ill government." For the present, however, Mr. Upward justly concludes that "the more sympathy and support we extend to the Turk in his present efforts at reform, the better we shall serve the Armenian, the Bulgar, and the Greek." Among the leaders of the Young Turks who were long exiled at Paris was Musurus Ghikis Bey, an Ottoman Greek. On behalf of the Greeks in Turkey, Musurus accepted the Young Turk platform, which aimed at the leveling of all racial and religious distinctions and the bestowal of the full rights of Turkish citizenship on the Christians in exchange for their loyal acceptance of Turkish nationality. Such a programme promised well; but when it came to be applied in detail, difficulties arose, and, as is natural, first in the domain of education. The new Turkish Government naturally desires to strengthen the unity of the Empire by the bond of a common language; it is also anxious to improve and modernize the primary schools, but it would like to see them attended by children of all races and creeds. On the other hand, the Greeks in Turkey regard their language and their schools as their most precious possessions. We hope that in their aspirations the Greeks may recognize the difference between civil and national freedom, and that in its aspirations the new Turkish Government will continue its wisdom and moderation, especially in liberal dealing with the Christian subjects of the Empire. For one of the most difficult problems of the new Government is the desire not only of the Greeks in Mace-

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donia, but also of the Armenians in Asia Minor, and even of many Arabs in Arabia, for independent and separate government. Yet it is doubtful if Turkey could give the Greeks anything like autonomous government in Macedonia without immediately producing trouble with the Armenians, and possibly with the Arabs also. If the New Turk party is to succeed in its reforms, the Ottoman Empire must be practically maintained where it now stands. Hence it would seem to be the part of wisdom for both Greeks and Armenians to throw all their strength towards the maintenance of a Constitutional Government. On the other hand, if the new Government decrees that the only recognized language in Turkey shall be the Turkish, and tries to compel all the educational institutions in Turkey to be carried on in that language, it will be making certain trouble for itself. Neither Greeks nor Armenians will submit to that quietly. These historic races may accept the present Government as assuring civil freedom, but they can hardly accept a provision to destroy their own national traditions.

CYPRUS Because of the Armenian massacres the island of Cyprus is now again in the public eye. By the Anglo-Turkish Convention of 1878 the Sultan promised England to introduce necessary reforms in the provinces of Asia Minor inhabited by the Armenians, and, in order to enable England to make necessary provision for executing her engagement to defend these provinces, agreed, if necessary, that Cyprus should be occupied and administered by England. This seemed a wise provision, as the island is not far from the port of Mersina, a gateway to the provinces in question. But history has shown how inefficient has been any protection to the provinces from the English forces assembled in the ports of Cyprus. The occupation of the island has not benefited the Armenians, and it is doubtful if it has benefited England. The occupation was expected to be of benefit, first of all, strategically. In 1878 the value of Cyprus as regards protection to the highway between England and India was certainly greater than to-day, because at that time the English did not control Egypt. At present, therefore, the strategic value of Cyprus is reduced to whatever advantage there may be in it as a base to watch any railway line of communication to India through Asia Minor to the head of the Persian Gulf. Second, it was expected that the island's augmented economic value would be quickly apparent. But it does not meet expectations. We find some explanation of this disappointment in Mr. Basil Stewart's "My Experience of Cyprus" (Dutton). After a long residence in the island, this author records his conclusion: "I cannot honestly say that its retention profits us to any degree commensurate with the obligations imposed upon us as tenants." England as a "tenant" of Turkey pays a yearly tribute of over $460,000. The tribute money, however, is never seen in Constantinople. It is paid to the foreign bondholders of the Turkish loan of 1855. England and France guaranteed that particular loan. Thus, in a certain sense, England "squares" with Turkey. But, aside from this, the island's actual value in annual money-return is, according to Mr. Stewart, only about half the sum paid as rent. Whether the value can be doubled remains to be seen. It should be. The English have failed to increase the economic value of the island because, according to this author, of "our unwillingness to take advantage of the experience of the native, or to accommodate ourselves to his ways and prejudices." Instead, says Mr. Stewart, the English pursue their own forceful way of insisting upon methods which they have found advantageous elsewhere, where conditions are quite different. He admits, however, that necessary reforms have been introduced in contrast to the island's wretchedness during three centuries of Turkish misrule. Cyprus has now an honest government. An excellent police force, consisting of both Mohammedans and Christians, gives safety to life and property. Justice is administered without fear or favor, in sharp contrast with the old time, when the so-called administration of justice was a mere matter of money or influence. A certain amount of self-government has been introduced. Hundreds of miles of carriage roads have been built. The ports have been improved. Thus an island which has been the battlefield

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between East and West, Saracen and Crusader, Jew and Christian, Greek and Turk, may now be at the dawn of a better day. If the Armenians have not benefited by the English occupation of Cyprus, the Cypriots have.

WOMEN IN CHINA

In North China the better class of women seldom see the men of their own people, and never see foreign men. The streets of Peking are thronged with men, but women are seldom in evidence. In South China, on the other hand, women are at work on the boats or in the streets of Canton; and in a city like Fuchau, for instance, where there are no cars or beasts of burden, women do all sorts of work. North or South, however, women have had little standing in China. Two events have now somewhat changed this condition—the schools instituted by missionaries for girls as well as boys, and the attitude during recent years of the late Empress Dowager. Concerning that ruler we have now an intimate and interesting account in the just published "Letters from China" (McClurg) by Sarah Pike Conger. From 1895 to 1904 Mrs. Conger, the wife of the Hon. F. H. Conger, then Minister to China, lived in Peking. Her letters to relatives in America include a graphic account of the siege, in 1900, of the Legations by the Boxers and the reactionary forces. This part of the book is written with admirable condensation and power. In the succeeding pages, however, describing diplomatic and other life, Mrs. Conger's style becomes somewhat strained and lacks directness and terseness. Her opportunities of knowing the most remarkable personage in the Empire were certainly exceptional, and so was the favor with which this American lady was regarded; and the description of the Empress Dowager is the volume's most noticeable feature. When Mr. Conger was transferred to another embassy, an observer said: "Even if he were not a good diplomat, the American Government should keep him in Peking as long as his wife lives, because of her intimacy with the Imperial family." Of course Mrs. Conger does not include this statement in her book, but after reading the volume one is constrained to sympathize with the observer. Mrs. Conger had been in Peking three years when, by the instance of the diplomats, the Empress Dowager consented to receive the ladies of the various Legations. No foreign lady had ever seen the rulers of China before. The Empress Dowager doubtless was much attracted by the wife of the American Minister, for, some time after, she permitted the Court princesses to come to *tiffin*, or luncheon, at the American Legation—their first introduction to a foreign home. Mrs. Conger had frequent conversations with her Majesty. Many conflicting and malicious statements had appeared about the Empress Dowager, and Mrs. Conger wanted to reveal to the world the face and manner of the mysterious woman who for forty-seven years stood at the head of the Chinese Empire. Her face, through Mrs. Conger's efforts, was revealed by Miss Carl, an American artist. As to manner, we now have Mrs. Conger's revelation. One might have expected that her reactionary course of earlier years would have left their impress on the ruler's manner, but to Mrs. Conger it was "a sweet tone of voice, a gentle clasp of hand, a cordial smile that bespoke a welcome not easy for any nationality to suspect." Certainly, in a land where woman has had comparatively low rank, the late Empress Dowager rose to a power which any man might envy, and the present volume shows her in a new and kindlier light.

MRS. WARD'S AMERICAN STORY

Mrs. Ward's latest story, "Marriage à la Mode" (Doubleday), will be read with respect and interest; its writer is one of the novelists of the day who treats fiction as if it were an art, and behind whose work there is always a clear vision of moral and æsthetic values. This is not the first story from Mrs. Ward's hand in which Americans have found a place and been described with sympathy and comprehension. In "Marriage à la Mode" Mrs. Ward has done three things: she has chosen as her motive the working out of free and easy divorce, and has shown, as only a novelist could show, its frightful demoralization of ethical standards, its vulgarization of domestic relations, and the moral tragedy inherent in its operation on

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a large scale in society. She has shown also incidentally the hardening influence of a great fortune on a woman imperfectly trained; and she has, so to speak, rediscovered Niagara Falls. It is so long since that great cataract has appeared in our literature that to come upon the impressive description which Mrs. Ward gives is almost like finding a lost fortune. In construction and style "Marriage à la Mode" falls distinctly below the level of most of its predecessors. It is full of mature observation, there are charming descriptions of Washington and Mount Vernon and interesting pen sketches of President Taft, Mr. Roosevelt, Mr. Root, and other public men, and there are those minute characterizations of society which could come only from the hand of a fully initiated woman; but the story is distinctly melodramatic.

THE PRESBYTERIAN ASSEMBLY

At the recent meeting of the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church in Denver the awakened consciousness of opportunity and duty in promoting the Christian solution of social problems made itself heard with point and emphasis. No official utterance of the Assembly as yet comes near the advanced position taken last year by the Federal Council of Churches (for whose social programme see The Outlook of December 19). But there was no lack of incisive exposure of the industrial, social, and political evils which challenge Christian men to abate them if they can. The mission and message of the prophet, as God's spokesman to proclaim the need and duty of a critical time, was the theme of discourse by the Moderator, Dr. J. M. Barkley, of Detroit. A concrete illustration of it was given by the Rev. Charles Stelzle, head of the Department of Labor in the Board of Home Missions. An audience of four thousand, mostly members of labor unions, presided over by Governor Shafroth, received with cheers his application of Christian principles to industrial conditions, and his assurance of the Church's sympathy with peaceful struggles for economic rights. A striking contrast, this, to the anarchic, murderous spirit rampant in Colorado five years ago! The Moderator's sermon and this illustration of its doctrine jointly formed the most significant feature of the Assembly week. A large minority of the Cumberland Presbyterian Church, sustained by the Supreme Court of Tennessee, still repudiates the reunion ratified in 1906. The polemic waged by their organ in the abusive seventeenth-century style is a strange survival in these days of interdenominational amenity.

THE SPREAD OF PROTECTIONISM

An argument frequently advanced in favor of maintaining the system of high protection is that the spread of the system throughout the nations of Europe is proof of the validity of the underlying principle. Such nations as Germany and Russia, it is urged, would not have adopted the protective tariff if such procedure would not make for the general welfare. No one can have followed the tariff-framing now in progress before Congress without being impressed with the fact that this common argument involves a *non sequitur*.

The only thing proved by the spread of the protective system is that special interests have obtained a powerful influence in politics throughout the world. It is impossible to watch the debates in the Senate without becoming convinced that the tariff is being revised, not in accordance with any economic principle, but in accordance with the demands and the strength of the beneficiaries. A Senator who was remonstrated with a few days ago for attempting to force a roll call while another Senator was trying to get the floor replied: "What's the use of talking when we've got the votes?" The arguments adduced by the revisionist Senators have had no effect, because the Senate was not open to argument. And the source of the power of the Finance Committee has been the special interests in numerous States seeking protection.

A Senator hesitates to disregard the behest of even a minor interest, because it has an active concern in politics which is likely to outweigh the languid interest of the general public. An industry employing a thousand men can give commands because the Senator dislikes to antagonize

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a thousand votes. One Senator from a State with large lumbering interests was deluged with telegrams urging him to vote to restore the Dingley rates on lumber. He refused, and voted for free lumber on the ground that the general welfare of his State and the country would be best subserved by a removal of the duty. He cast his vote with the knowledge that by so doing he would antagonize powerful interests virtually controlling many thousand votes, and that he must trust to the public at large to appreciate his service and rally to his support in sufficient numbers to counteract this loss. But few men have that amount of courage.

Analogous conditions exist abroad. Everywhere the special interest that knows what it wants from the Government is at a great advantage over the general public, for its concern is direct and immediate, while that of the people is remote. The public, at home and abroad, is never represented by powerful agents at the seat of government, as are the special interests. The question of the soundness of the protective system is not involved in the action of foreign governments in adopting it. All that is proved is the influence of large interests in politics.

THE DENIAL OF JUSTICE

One of Abbey's mural decorations in the Pennsylvania State Capitol is the figure of Justice. Across the background is this quotation: "Justice is the end of government; it is the end of civil society; it ever has been, ever will be, pursued until it be obtained, or until liberty be lost in the pursuit."

Axiomatic as these words sound, the truth they convey is too little thought on, and is sometimes neglected. Because justice as the end of government is counted sacred, the courts of justice are held in honor. The race has won its present large measure of just government at so high a cost that it rightly resents thoughtless attack upon the institutions through which this measure of just government has been attained. As a consequence the sacredness of the end of government has been to some degree transferred to governmental instruments; so that many people have been inclined to regard criticism of the courts and of judicial procedure as an attack upon the end of civil society itself. It will, therefore, be an aid to clearness of thinking to remember that it is not the maintenance of courts of justice, or legal methods, or even judges, that constitutes the end for which government exists, but rather the maintenance of justice itself.

There are at least four points in which our present instruments of justice are now imperfect. Two of those points are to be found in our courts; two are to be found in our places of detention.

First, American courts are, as a rule, slow in operation. Justice delayed is often justice denied. The Outlook has treated this fault in our courts, particularly as applied to criminal cases. The guards that have been placed about the accused have become in many cases barriers impeding society in its pursuit of known and proved criminals. This week The Outlook publishes an article which shows how the law's delay works injustice in civil cases. No one, we believe, can read what Mr. Scoville has to say about "The Denial of Justice" without being convinced that questions of court procedure have become no longer merely technical questions for the lawyer, but vital matters of public concern.

The second direction in which our courts need correction is in the methods with which they deal with prisoners convicted of offenses against the law. In these methods there is little uniformity; and behind them there is not apparent any sound and consistent principle. In Chicago recently there was a hot debate, in which judges themselves engaged, over the proper treatment of delinquents. The hazard of circumstance and the pleasure or displeasure of the magistrate or judge, rather than any well-conceived public policy, too often determine the fate of the lawbreaker.

The third point where American administration of justice is weak is in the jails where the accused are held awaiting trial. Concerning these places the general public has little knowledge; and yet it is in them that men and women and children, legally innocent, some of them held merely as witnesses, are forced to spend days and weeks, and sometimes months.

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The fourth point where American administration of justice is weak is in the methods of punishment. Society is still in the stage of transition from one point of view regarding punishment to another. When society conceived of punishment as retaliation, it regarded its duty in that respect well performed by the rack and the fagot and the cross. Yet, though society has repudiated instruments of torture, it has not altogether repudiated the idea of which torture was the logical result. Gradually, in place of vengeance, society is putting protection to itself and reclamation of the guilty as the end of punishment. So long, however, as our prisons are constructed and managed according to the outworn idea, so long society is missing the end of government—justice.

From time to time The Outlook plans to deal with these various aspects of the denial of justice; and in each case its purpose is to deal with the matter, not merely in the form of criticism of existing conditions, but in the form of constructive suggestion of remedy.

A BRILLIANT COMMEMORATION

It is a happy coincidence which brings the celebration of the centenaries of the discovery of Lake Champlain and of the Hudson River in the same season, and so carries the imagination of the State from the harbor of New York through some of the most beautiful scenery on the continent to the St. Lawrence, one of the most impressive rivers in the world. Next after the Amazon, the Orinoco, and the Columbia, the St. Lawrence perhaps takes its place, noble alike for the volume of its waters, the number and beauty of its islands, and the impressiveness of the landscape through which it passes. The Committee of Arrangements organized under a resolution introduced by the Hon. Henry W. Hill, of Buffalo, in the State Senate nearly two years ago, entered into its work with extraordinary enthusiasm and intelligence, and has outlined a programme which promises to recall in a very effective and striking way the history of Lake Champlain from Ticonderoga to Isle La Motte; the two States bordering the lake, Vermont and New York, and Canada, which in the old days was so intimately associated with the historical events on and around Lake Champlain, uniting to honor the leading men of three nations and the picturesque or important incidents which have made the Champlain Valley famous. There is, perhaps, no more beautiful lake in the country; and when Champlain saw it for the first time, about July 4, three hundred years ago, his quick imagination and generous spirit must have been deeply impressed by the unbroken forest which swept down to its quiet shores from the summits of Marcy and Whiteface on the right and of Mansfield on the left, with fair islands, well shaded and of an inviting aspect.

The lake could have had no worthier sponsor; and no man of that early time, which bred men of audacity, adventure, and generosity of spirit, could more worthily have found immortality in the path of the discoverer. Frenchmen, Portuguese, Italians, and Englishmen had already touched the coast and made misleading maps of the long line of the eastern seaboard of the continent; but when Champlain and his little group of Frenchmen, with three or four hundred Algonquin allies and guides, went up the Richelieu River and discovered the lake, they were two months in advance of Henry Hudson's sailing into New York harbor, and eleven years in advance of the Puritans who landed at Plymouth Rock.

Born in Rochelle, Champlain had been accustomed from his childhood to the sea; for he came from a section of France which, like the English Devonshire, was a nursery of sailors. Brave to the verge of audacity, high-minded, devoted to the interests of his king and religion, a strict disciplinarian, but the most generous and genial of men, Champlain was every inch a gentleman; and of the group of brilliant Frenchmen—Cadillac, Joliet, Marquette, Frontenac, La Salle—he holds a foremost place and was rightly called "the Father of New France." Entirely apart from events which have given historical interest at many points on Lake Champlain, its finest associations are those which bring into the foreground the figures of a group of brave and high-minded soldiers.

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Sir William Johnson was a mixed character, but he held a position of singular influence in the early colonial days. He was, in effect, an independent baron, whose resourcefulness, unfaltering courage, and knowledge of the Indian character made him a great figure. His defeat at Crown Point was one of the few disasters of a successful career. General Howe, who fell later, was one of the most promising officers ever sent to this country in the early days by Great Britain, and, if it had fallen to his lot to take part in the Revolutionary struggle, the success of the colonists would have been more difficult. Montcalm belongs also, not only with the most distinguished, but with the noblest actors on the stage of the New World. His repulse of Abercrombie at Ticonderoga was a brilliant stroke; and he divides with Wolfe, whose happy fate it has been to touch the imagination of the whole English-speaking world, the honors of that swift and tragic morning on the Plains of Abraham. Lord Amherst, who captured both Crown Point and Ticonderoga in 1785, and later Montreal, was another great figure to whom belongs chiefly the credit of transferring Canada from French to Indian hands, fifteen years before the opening of the Revolution. Along this lake passed Benedict Arnold in the daring Canadian invasion—then the bravest of the brave, with the love and confidence of Washington, and a popular admiration which made him one of the heroes of the war, not only in the colonies, but in England; and Montgomery, who died before the walls of Quebec, and whose monument is the most conspicuous memorial in St. Paul's Church, New York; a man honored as much by his English antagonists as by his compatriots. The surrounding hills echo to the reverberation of cannon on brave little fleets fighting small battles with as much devotion and ability as have gone into many more brilliant struggles. Up the lake in 1776 came Sir Guy Carleton with twelve thousand men, to be met by Arnold with a little fleet of schooners and sloops; inevitably crippled in the fight, Arnold accomplished a masterly retreat, and won as much fame in disaster as he could possibly have gained by victory. Every American boy is familiar with the figure of Ethan Allen and his early morning onset and famous demand for the surrender of Ticonderoga; but not every boy remembers that at Saratoga, not far from the lake, the really decisive battle of the Revolution was fought and won. Nor has every boy read the story of the naval battle which made the name of Macdonough illustrious.

If its early history is associated with the terrible war-whoop of the invading Indian, with the crash of artillery, the rattle of musketry, and the desolation and ruin of war, the later history of Lake Champlain is that of a growing prosperity, an increasing appreciation of its charming and placid beauty, and its immense value for health and rest and pleasure.

The Committee have planned a series of celebrations which will recall, as in a moving panorama, or series of *tableaux vivants*, the incidents of this remarkable history of three hundred years, and the men who have appeared on this beautiful stage. On Sunday, July 4, many churches in Vermont and New York will hold appropriate services; on July 5 at Crown Point, on the 6th at Fort Ticonderoga, on the 7th at Plattsburg, on the 8th at Burlington, on the 9th at Isle La Motte, there will be celebrations, with addresses by notable men and the attendance of many distinguished people—Canadian, French, and English. President Taft, Vice-President Sherman, representatives of Great Britain, France, and Canada, the Governors of New York and Vermont, are expected to be guests at some of these various occasions. And the most picturesque feature of the celebrations will be the reproduction by one hundred and fifty Indian descendants of the original tribes of the Champlain Valley of the battle of Champlain with the Iroquois, and a dramatic version of Longfellow's "Hiawatha" on floating barges.

The Educational Department of the State of New York is distributing a pamphlet among the public schools of the State, not only outlining the history of the valley, but giving a list of historical, poetical, biographical, and romantic readings, which will bring the story of the lake within the reach of every child in the State. There could be no more appropriate and valuable use of the occasion than this.

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A SERVIAN VIEW OF THE BALKAN QUESTION

What is popularly known as the Balkan Question concerns the following states, kingdoms, or provinces which lie between the Austro-Hungarian Empire on the north, the Ægean Sea on the south, the Black Sea on the east, and the Adriatic Sea on the west: Rumania, Servia, Bulgaria, Macedonia, Albania, Montenegro, Dalmatia, Croatia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, the last two having been seized by Austria. Some of these states or principalities or kingdoms are politically independent; some of them are under the actual political control of Turkey, some under the actual political control of Austria, and some under the dominating influence of these two Powers.

The Balkan Question in its largest sense is the question whether these countries, known as the Balkan States, can be united into a federation, as the American colonies were federated and became the United States of America. This is more or less a rough statement; but, without going into detail, it fairly presents the case. But this general question as to an ultimate federation of the Balkan States must give way to some subsidiary questions which are more acute for the moment; as, for example, Shall the Austrian Empire seize and swallow Servia, as she has just seized and swallowed Bosnia and Herzegovina? The Servian people are for the moment greatly and reasonably exercised over this acute phase of the question. They see that Austria has taken Bosnia and Herzegovina, which were for a time Servian states before the Turkish conquest, and they fear they may lose their own national and political identity. At the same time, the Servian people are profoundly interested in the fundamental Balkan question, which is, as before stated, whether the Balkan peoples may not be united into a federation which shall be either democratic or constitutionally monarchical and recognized by European Powers. Asking our readers to bear clearly in mind these two aspects of the Balkan Question, (1) the general question which involves a possible federation of independent and autonomous states in a union strong enough to preserve a combined front in international questions, and (2) the immediate fear of Servia that she is to be obliterated, both racially and nationally, by Austria, we propose here to try to present the Servian view in regard to this second aspect of the Balkan Question.

On the Ægean Sea, in an almost direct north and south line between Vienna and Suez, lies the Turkish city of Salonika. It is a city of 105,000 inhabitants, and is a close geographical neighbor of the cities of Athens, Smyrna, and Constantinople. A glance at the map will show how important is its position as a seaport. All Europe knows that Austria is pushing southward to Salonika on the Ægean, as in the past she pushed southward and took Trieste on the Adriatic. In this march upon Salonika she has seized and annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina. Servians are convinced that Austria is determined next to seize Servia, and the recent Austro-Servian crisis, which for a few weeks threatened war between the great empire on the one hand and the little kingdom on the other, arose from the resistance of the Servians and their sympathizers in the other Balkan States to the ambitious and selfish policy of Austria.

What is Austria's motive?

The picture of industrial prosperity in England and in France in the sixties tempted Austria to embark upon a period of frantic industrial adventure as a swift means of acquiring national and individual riches. This fever of "industrialism" drew the laborers from the land and turned them into the industrial centers, where, dependent entirely upon a daily wage, they fell into the non-possessing and pauper class. Prior to about thirty-five years ago, both Austria and Hungary were entirely agricultural. A large part of the land belonged, in small or medium-sized holdings, to a population of peasant landowners. The artificial transformation of the Austrian Empire from an agricultural into an industrial and capitalistic country has during the last thirty years brought about the ruin of the agricultural classes. The small holdings have to a great extent become merged into vast, lordly estates. The result has been a rapidly growing emigration from the Austrian Empire of the peasants and small landowners who

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formerly lived in comparative comfort supported by agricultural pursuits. In 1880 these emigrants numbered 29,000; in 1901 the number had grown to 196,000, to-day about 300,000 emigrants leave Austria annually. Having substituted artificially nurtured manufactures for natural agriculture, Austria is able to compete with other nations only by underselling. This underselling must be maintained at the expense of the wage-worker. The wages of the Austrian working population are incredibly low, from the American point of view. According to government statistics, skilled workmen receive from twenty-four to eighty cents a day; ordinary workmen above twenty-four years of age, from twenty to forty cents a day; ordinary workmen under twenty-four years of age, from twelve to twenty cents a day. The wages of women working in factories range from twelve to twenty cents a day. The condition of extreme national discontent which exists throughout the Empire among the working classes is easily explained by the statistics of wages and taxation. In 1890 the number of persons against whom it was necessary to take action for non-payment of taxes was increased by 118,704. The registration lists for the elections to Parliament held just previous to the introduction of so-called universal suffrage showed that sixty per cent of the male population over twenty-four years of age was either unable or unwilling to pay the minimum tax of two dollars, which enables a man to vote. Government statistics indicate that in the Austrian part of the Empire more than 11,000,000 people, or between one-third and one-half of the entire population, occupy lodgings consisting generally of one room, or, at best, two. During the last thirty years criminal statistics indicate the grave increase of pauperism, prostitution, suicides, and convictions for crime.

The Government authorities of Austria, recognizing their inability to cope with this internal misery, and to provide conditions of ordinary human opportunity for the working people within the territory of the Empire, are now seeking expansion towards the Orient in order to give the artificially fostered manufactures of Austria a larger and more profitable market. This, coupled with the historic and unceasing desire of the Habsburgs for world empire, so Servians believe, is the motive which has led Austria to seize or annex Bosnia and Herzegovina, and it is with this motive that she hopes to add Servia, and perhaps others of the Balkan States, to her empire.

Americans can look upon the political intrigues and conflicts of Central Europe only as neutral observers; but no American who believes in the principles on which the United States was founded as a democratic nation, and who wishes for the steady progress of human rights throughout the world, can fail to take a profound interest in the Balkan Question, which we have thus outlined. It is perhaps too much to hope that a concert of European Powers which has failed to give decent protection to the Armenian in Turkey will be courageous and righteous enough to guarantee Servia against the selfish invasion of an empire which is to-day held together by only the most artificial bonds. Every lover of constitutional government and of industrial democracy ought to sympathize with the Servians in their ideal of creating a United States of the Balkans.

It is rather a curious thing that the present world-wide movement for the development and use of waterways in the promotion of commerce should have an important bearing on the future of the Balkan States, and on the growth of liberal and democratic ideas in Turkey, and perhaps in Persia. One of the motives which is prompting Austria to lay her hand upon Servia is to obtain control of the all-rail route from Vienna to Salonika. A Servian gentleman of prominence and distinction, Prince Lazarovich Hrebelianovich, is now in this country promoting an undertaking to build a canal across Servia connecting the Danube and the Ægean Sea. Two rivers, the Morava in Servia, which empties itself into the Danube, and the Vardar in Turkey, which flows into the Ægean Sea, would be used as the basis of this canal. It has been planned by him and surveyed by Servian engineers, and is believed by the best European authorities to be a practical engineering undertaking. Servia wishes to have the canal constructed by an American cor-

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poration in order to avoid some of the complications of European politics. This canal, when built, at the proposed cost of $70,000,000, would make the final link in the system of waterways of Central and Northern Europe connecting the Rhine and the North Sea with the Ægean Sea and Suez. It would shorten the trade route between Central Europe and Mediterranean ports by 1,500 miles. This waterway, as providing a short and cheap trade route to the Orient, would solve the purely commercial and trade problems of Austria-Hungary involved in the pretense of the necessity for territorial expansion.

Is this not an enterprise which Europe should be much more actively interested in promoting than in the attempt of Austria to obtain by violence control of the Balkan States for her own selfish purposes?

WHO IS HE?

Unlike the ordinary consciousness, the religious consciousness is concerned with that which lies beyond the sphere of sense. A brute thinks only of things which can be touched, seen, heard, tasted, etc.; and the like is true of the untaught child, the deaf-mute, and the lowest savage. But the developing man has thoughts about existences which he regards as usually intangible, inaudible, invisible; and yet which he regards as operative upon him.

So says Herbert Spencer. If this be true, then he who is more than a brute, who thinks sometimes of what cannot be touched, seen, heard, tasted, etc., will be interested to know what one of the greatest religious teachers of the ages has to say about the one great Being who is intangible, inaudible, invisible, and yet is operative in mankind. What does Jesus teach about God? And this question will interest the thoughtful man, whether or not he thinks that Jesus possessed a divine or even an exceptionally prophetic character. This is the question which Dr. William Newton Clarke attempts to answer in his latest volume, "The Christian Doctrine of God" (Scribners). Dr. Clarke is more than a theological teacher; he is a religious teacher. His "aim is practical . . . and the work is inspired by the hope that to the reader God may become more clearly and truly known." It is with a similar aim, following the lines of the book, that this article is written. It is therefore, like the book, stated in the terms of experience, for no theological doctrine is of any religious value unless it can be so stated as to reflect and affect human experience.

Herbert Spencer has said that nothing is more certain than that we are ever in the presence of an Infinite and Eternal Energy, from which all things proceed. At least twenty-odd centuries before Herbert Spencer an unknown Hebrew poet had said the same thing:

"Whither shall I go from thy spirit?
Or whither shall I flee from thy presence?
If I ascend up into heaven, thou art there;
If I make my bed in hell, behold, thou art there;
If I take the wings of the morning,
And dwell in the uttermost parts of the sea;
Even there shall thy hand lead me,
And thy right hand shall hold me."

What did Jesus teach concerning this intangible, inaudible, invisible, yet universal Presence?

First of all, that the "knowledge of God is not school knowledge, it is life knowledge: not information, but acquaintance." "God is not to be known by reasoning out doctrines of him, but by living with him." "A man is to know God as a child knows his parents, by experience." So, for the answer to the question, What did Jesus teach? we are not sent merely to the Four Gospels. We are sent to the experience of the pupils of Jesus. What is the conception of God which has grown up in the experience of Christians out of the teaching of Christ? Or, to turn back to the phraseology of Herbert Spencer, If the developing man has thoughts concerning the invisible but universal presence, what are the thoughts of those who consciously owe their religious development to the teachings of Jesus Christ?

Christians universally believe in a personal God. What do we mean by a person? Why am I, I; and you, you? We mean consciousness and choice; some knowledge of ourselves, and some power to direct ourselves, or, in more technical language, self-consciousness and self-determination. In the experiences of all Christians, and in the teaching of Jesus that has come down to us, this is the first and most

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fundamental truth. This inaudible, invisible, universal Presence, this Infinite and Eternal Energy from which all things proceed, is one who is related to men, one between whom and men communion, fellowship, converse, is possible. This Presence is He, not It. Says Matthew Arnold: "Many excellent people are crying out every day that all is lost in religion unless we can affirm that God is a person who thinks and loves." These many excellent people are right in so far as this: it is true that what is most fundamental in the Christian religion is lost unless we can affirm that God is a person who thinks and loves. For the whole of the Christian religion might be said to be summed up in the words, "Say, Our Father." For it all grows out of the faith that Christian experience is common to humanity—that is, religion is a common and may be a universal experience—and that it is an experience of conscious filial relation to the Infinite, who is never perfectly understood but need never be unknown. Christianity does not approach God as a Great First Cause, that is, through philosophy; it approaches him as the Great Companion, that is, through experience.

The majority of Christians believe in the Trinity, or, as Dr. Clarke better designates it, the Tri-unity. They believe in a Triune God. What do they mean by a Triune God? What does faith in the Tri-unity of God mean in Christian experience? It does not mean Three Persons in One God. That is not a human experience. It cannot be stated as a human experience. It is at best only a philosophical deduction from human experiences. If we wish a statement of Tri-unity in human experience, we may find it in the oldest statement of Tri-unity in Christian literature, Paul's benediction to the Corinthians: "The grace of the Lord Jesus Christ, the love of God, and the communion of the Holy Spirit be with you all." This is not philosophy; it is life. It is the expression of the desire that the Corinthians may receive into their life those free gifts which Paul has received from Christ; and chief among them a realization of the love of the Eternal, a love which is personal, sympathetic, effectual, human; and out of that realization of the love of the Eternal, as made clear in the luminous, inspirational life and character of Jesus Christ, may enter into fellowship with the spirit of the Eternal, the Spirit of love which was in Christ. The doctrine of the Tri-unity, as it exists in the conscious experience of the disciples of Christ, is not an abstract, metaphysical doctrine of an intangible, inaudible, invisible Existence; it is a perception of that Existence in his threefold relation to men as "revealing, revealed, abiding. The relations are not abstract, but practical: in these three ways writer and readers were learning to do with God."

One more illustration must suffice here to complete this hint as to a doctrine of God built out of human experience. What do we mean by the Transcendence and what by the Immanence of God? What is there in personal experience which answers to these phraseologies? Two truths of universal consciousness. I am more than the body which I inhabit, and it is subject to me—a truth which psychology may interpret or explain, but can never successfully controvert. But I am also equally present in all parts of my body, and in a state of health it is all alike a part of my domain. Use this human experience to interpret God's relation to the universe. First, God is Spirit and transcends the universe. "He and he alone exists in and of himself, . . . while the universe, his sole companion in existence, exists simply and solely because of him. He is the Creator, it is the creature. His is the will, and the universe is the response. In self-existence and creatorhood he stands transcendent." And, second, this transcendent Spirit is no absentee God, detached from the universe, a localized deity dwelling in the sky, as still many hymns and prayers represent him to be. "All opportunity to think of an infinitely distant home of God is crowded out, and it is by a practical necessity that we look upon Him as a pervading presence. If we are to think of him as anywhere, we are compelled to think of him as everywhere." In this respect, as we have already pointed out, the scientific conception, as interpreted by Herbert Spencer, and the spiritual conception, as interpreted by the ancient Psalmist, are essentially one. The testimony of religious experience modern science confirms.

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America sorely needs a preaching that is more than either merely sociological or merely ethical. We recommend to our ministerial readers Dr. Clarke's volume. For it will show them that it is possible to teach a religion that is theological and a theology that is religious; in other words, to preach a religious doctrine of God; "God in relations with men, and in those relations which are learned and experienced in the life of religion."

THE SPECTATOR

The Spectator has never been irritated by the reproach that his native America "had no ruins." All that glorifies our past yet lives, needing no monument of crumbling stone, so long as the best of old purposes and ideals are kept alight in the hearts of younger Americans. If these words smack a little of old-time days and olden speech, the Spectator craves forgiveness. He has for a week or more seen such a mingling of present and past as to upset all chronicles. He has been with good friends in the town of Bronxville, Westchester County, just a Sabbath-day's journey from New York City, and he has seen its Historical Pageant.

To the Spectator George Washington, Anne Hutchinson, Major André, the hearty old navigator Adriaen Block, and a hundred more no less renowned, are contemporary. The Declaration of Independence is as recent and far more inspiring than the newspaper or the magazine fresh from the press. The war-cry of the savage yet echoes in his ears, and he has just ceased to tremble at the prowess of the Redcoats, and to greet George Washington. And the illusion persists, despite some incongruous memories. The Spectator has had more than once to stare and gasp at sights the most bewildering. He has come upon automobiles loaded with musketeers in morion and cuirass and bearing halberds; he has seen the earliest settlers in excited converse with their great-great-grandchildren of like stature with themselves; he has stood by while dames of the seventeenth century telephoned eagerly for their calashes or buckled shoon; he has sat upon a sedan chair to see a quaint quadrille performed under incandescent electric lighting, and then turned to be confronted by an old-time tin lanthorn held by an old watchman. Ruffs and farthingales, heraldic bearings, the clanking of swords, the snapping of flintlock muskets, are all familiar through weeks of studious preparation for the great Pageant that filled a day as rare as June's with the veritable pictured past.

For the Pageant was, in a word, inspiring. The surroundings were the beautiful fields and woods that are the same today as in the times of the forefathers who subdued them to our use. Announced by a "King-at-Arms" and heralds in rich tabards, the various Episodes rolled on in a rich tide of mimicry, making alive again before the Spectator's eyes the scenes that are but dust in the printed histories. He saw the bold Dutch navigators claiming the right to trade with the new Indies; he saw the coming of the long train of settlers, their bargaining with the red men—from whom the fearsome Dutch matrons shrank closer to their armed husbands. These fears were too soon justified when the burning of Anne Hutchinson's hut and the shrieks of the Indians were a prelude to the capture of her little daughter—saved because of her kindness to the treacherous chieftain. Then followed the colonists' vengeful expedition under the doughty Captain John Underhill, whose soldiers marched away under the green trees with most realistic effect.

The Spectator had feared disillusionment in the accidents of amateur representation. But he was continually reassured as scene after scene, comprising men, women, children, animals, and clever properties, was embodied most dramatically, and with the cool self-possession of professional work. Troops of horsemen performed their evolutions, crowds gathered and dispersed, dialogues and dramas were all arranged in due and fitting order, and the Spectator could but follow contentedly the thrilling chronicle. So he saw Yonkers founded, saw the cool with-

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standing of the Dutch by English settlers, who had set up the Arms of the Parliament as an ægis; and then there was a deserved tribute to the Huguenots from whom New Rochelle derives its name. The perils of the escape from France were typified in the true story of Daniel Bonnett and his wife, whose children were smuggled away in panniers of fruit upon a donkey's back—a bit of difficult acting most excellently done, and thrilling.

The Spectator does not mean to repeat the programme, but as he recalls the spectacle its scenes are vividly in mind—as he hopes they may remain in the minds of the children who here found a history lesson of none the less value that it was so thickly sugar-coated with pageantry. Let him at least note a few of the gallery of pictures, such as the fascinating minuet danced by the guests of Lord and Lady Pell—an outing to delight Terpsichore herself; and the "Election on the Green" at Eastchester, where first the people showed an awakening spirit of independence. In this scene the arena was a whirling cavalcade of horsemen topped by a forest of banners, and surrounded by Colonial dames and daughters striving to cheer like men. Next came the Revolutionary Days, and the Spectator saw and heard the Father of his Country, most excellent in the quality he professed, while General Howe's discouragement over the repulse at White Plains gave the newly antiquated Spectator a thrill of patriotic joy. But this was compensated for when next the Spectator gazed upon handsome, manly young Major André, and felt some reminiscence of the grief of Washington himself at the brave young soldier's fate.

A final episode came within speaking distance of the present, for here in the flesh walked Irving at Sunnyside, Bryant, Poe, Hawthorne, Webster, Cooper, Longfellow—and, being of the immortals, these might be thought of as men of to-day. When these had their day in court, the woods walked, as Birnam came alive and marched to confound Macbeth. From every vista trooped the costumed performers, gathering in hundreds about the great flag of the League of Peace—the Stars and Stripes upon a snow-white and gold-fringed field. Then all joined in a final chorus, and thus concluded the Pageant in a way that gave to every spectator the sense of a sharing in the occasion.

The Spectator is glad that he saw the Pageant. He does not feel like peering with microscopic eye in the hope of hitting upon some spot in the fabric less well woven than the rest. Such criticism is fatally easy, and while it may raise a laugh among the unthinking it cannot but make the judicious grieve. The Spectator is not especially concerned with the charitable purpose of the enterprise, and he sees no reason for awarding praise to this or that planner, organizer, or performer. The Spectator deals with none of these things. He is interested in the Pageant upon broader grounds, and commends it as fulfilling higher purposes. Such a Masque, so worthily performed, seems to the Spectator a right tribute to the makers of our Nation, and an inspiration to ourselves. The embodying of our past preaches, as no words can do, that "it is for us the living rather to be dedicated to the unfinished work" of our ancestors. This message may come from a revival of the past as from memorials to the dead. The Spectator sees in this Pageant, and in the many performed or planned, events of the time better worth chronicle than two-thirds of the happenings that keep our hurried presses revolving. He believes that it should have more than the tribute of chattering gossip, and he is glad to bear witness that he was stirred by the drama in the woods of Westchester, and grateful for the dreams of those two midsummer days.

Of course there were distinguished guests and social notables present; but the Spectator cared to see only the mimic grandees of the green-turfed stage; and he walked away down the woodland road to the town with his eyes still fixed upon the days of long ago.

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THE DENIAL OF JUSTICE

BY SAMUEL SCOVILLE, JR.

The inevitable effect of the delays incident to the machinery now required in the settlement of controversies in judicial tribunals is to oppose and put at a disadvantage the poor litigant and give great advantage to the wealthy litigant. I do not mean to say that it is possible, humanly speaking, to put them on an exact equality as to litigation. But it certainly is possible to reduce greatly the disadvantage under which the man of little means labors in vindicating or defending his rights in court under the existing system, and courts and legislatures could devote themselves to no higher purpose than the elimination from the present system of those of its provisions which tend to prolong the time in which judicial controversies can be disposed of. *William H. Taft.*

It is earnestly to be desired that some method should be devised for doing away with the long delays which now obtain in the administration of justice, and which operate with peculiar severity against persons of small means, and favor only the very criminals whom it is most desirable to punish. These long delays in the final decisions of cases make in the aggregate a crying evil; and a remedy should be devised. Much of this intolerable delay is due to improper regard paid to technicalities which are a mere hindrance to justice. In some noted cases this over-regard for technicalities has resulted in a striking denial of justice, and flagrant wrong to the body politic. *Theodore Roosevelt.*

IN 1896 Marie Louise Luders, a rosy-cheeked German girl, with her husband Simon, came to this country, and the two settled in a little home on the upper East Side of New York City. Marie was the proud possessor of a fortune—of four hundred dollars. Simple Simon boasted of his wife's wealth before his boss, a saloon-keeper named King. Immediately thereafter he noticed that marked money was constantly passing over the bar. Simon accordingly held up a marked half-dollar and sealed it in an envelope. On pay day he handed this to his boss for an explanation. It came with startling suddenness in the shape of a blustering lawyer of sinister reputation, who loudly and impressively charged Simon with larceny from King and produced the marked half-dollar as evidence. This attorney then expatiated learnedly on the enormity of the crime and the penalty, which he assured the bewildered Simon was invariably ten years in State prison. In spite of the heinous nature of the offense, however, the lawyer mercifully advised a compromise. King, with mercy of the same unstrained brand, finally agreed. Simon's stunned silence was accepted in lieu of consent on his part, and the gifted attorney, after complicated calculations with pencil and paper, announced that four hundred dollars would be accepted in place of the ten years' imprisonment.

At this point in the proceedings a great light dawned upon Simon. He shouted his innocence of any crime, stoutly refused to pay King a penny, and left the saloon unmolested. On his return home Simon only told Marie that he had given up his job because of a quarrel with the boss, and at once started out to look for another. The next day, in his absence, one of King's collectors came around to the house and told Marie that Simon had been caught stealing and that as soon as he came back he would be arrested and sent up for ten years. This friend in need further advised her to go around to King's place at once and settle the matter. A little later came a neighbor with the same story and the same advice. Then another and still another, until five different persons had repeated the message. In the evening some rough-looking men came who said they were detectives and looking for Simon. Marie could speak no English, and knew as much about the law of the land as she did of the Iliad. Simon was everything to her, and he was away, perhaps in hiding. Possessed of the thought that she alone could save her husband, the poor girl went by night to King's saloon. There she met King, his lawyer, and a choice collection of his henchmen. Among them

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they frightened her into paying three hundred dollars to save her husband from what she thought was a ten-year imprisonment for the theft of fifty cents. Late that night Simon returned in triumph with a new job, to learn of the useless loss of the little fortune of which they had been so proud. There was no sleep for either of them for the rest of that night, and early the next morning they consulted a lawyer and under his advice began a suit for the recovery of the money. The money was paid to King on November 10, 1896. On November 12, 1896, the suit was started. Not until May, 1902, nearly six years later, did Marie obtain a recovery. Six years of waiting, of hopes deferred and of brooding over an unredressed wrong, changed them both for the worse. Simon took to drinking. Marie became broken down and dispirited, with her ambition as faded as her face. When the money was finally paid over to her by her attorney, she only said: "It was too long a time a-coming."

On the evening of February 9, 1890, Alicia W. Darris, a maiden lady living in Philadelphia, broke her ankle because of a defective pavement. She managed to crawl home, part of the way on her hands and knees, was confined to her house for six months, and came out permanently injured and weakened. Before her accident she had conducted a fashionable boarding-house with great success. As a result of the accident she was forced to give up her business and to become dependent upon her relatives for support. A suit was commenced against the city of Philadelphia as of September Term, 1890. The case was not reached finally for trial until November 9, 1906, *sixteen years* after the accident. A part of this delay was due to Miss Darris's absence from the city, but during the last few years every effort was made by herself and her attorney, without success, to force the case on for trial. When a trial was finally obtained, a recovery of $5,000 was secured for the plaintiff. As with Mrs. Luders, this was another case of justice done too late. If this money had been recovered soon after her accident, Miss Darris could have made a winning fight for independence. When the case was finally heard, however, her day had gone by forever as a wage-earner, and, as with Mrs. Luders justice had been "too long a time a-coming."

The above are but cases taken at random, with the names, of course, changed, from the writer's New York and Philadelphia dockets, in order that he might write of the same from personal knowledge. They are pronounced but not unusual instances of delay in the obtaining of justice under our present system.

To-day in all but one of our large cities a suitor can say of the law's interminable delays, as did Tom Jarndyce, who cut his throat in the Chancery of a century ago:

> It's being ground to bits in a slow mill, it's being roasted at a slow fire, it's being stung to death by single bees, it's being drowned by drops, it's going mad by grains.

From the lowest to the highest courts the very fiber of our judicial system is weakened by legalized delays. A brief examination of the conditions existing in a few of the more important courts of this country will show that this statement is not unwarranted, and, it is hoped, will suggest remedies for the existing abuses.

The Supreme Court of the United States is a court of last resort of over one hundred million people. No other court in the world, save possibly the English House of Lords, is more effectively protected against unwarranted and trivial appeals. In general, only cases involving large sums of money and constitutional questions of law are appealable to the Supreme Court, and the percentage of appeals throughout all the States which finally reach the Supreme Court for determination is a very small fraction of one per cent. If there is one court in existence where, by reason of the importance of its decisions and the care exercised to keep its lists clear from trivial appeals, speedy justice might be expected, it is the Supreme Court of the United States.

In 1898 the steamship La Bourgogne, a French vessel, collided with the British steamship Cromartyshire about sixty miles off Sable Island. The Bourgogne sank, and five hundred and fifty persons were drowned and practically all of her cargo was a total loss. Suits were brought against this company and claims filed aggregating $2,000,000 for damages resulting from loss of life and loss of baggage

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and freight. In May, 1900, certain proceedings were begun by the steamship line in the District Court of the United States in the State of New York to limit its liability. The case went up from the District Court to the Circuit Court of Appeals, and from there to the Supreme Court of the United States. There it was finally reached for argument on November 1, 1907, and was decided on May 18, 1908. Five hundred and fifty families were compelled to wait nine and one-half years after the accident to find out whether they could recover for their losses. One claimant, by the decision of the Supreme Court, was allowed a claim of $432, and another $350—victories very considerably diluted by delay.

At present writing an appeal cannot be reached for argument short of a year and a half after it is first docketed; and after it is argued, the Supreme Court, as in the Bourgogne case, frequently takes several months before rendering its decision.

The Court sits four hours a day for five days in the week, sitting every week day except Saturday, from 12 noon to 4:30 in the afternoon, with a recess from 2 to 2:30. One of these days each week is practically occupied by reading aloud the opinions handed down by each judge—a custom smacking of the time when there were town criers instead of newspapers and quill pens instead of typewriters. Its official term for the year 1907 comprised thirty-three weeks out of the fifty-two, and officially it worked thirty-three weeks and rested nineteen. This official schedule, however, does not take into consideration the recess habit, to which the Supreme Court has fallen a victim. The Court usually takes a two weeks' recess at Thanksgiving, two weeks more at Christmas, likewise a recess covering the first three weeks in February, similarly another one for the last two weeks in March, and, furthermore and lastly (for the present), the last four or five weeks of the term, unofficially dividing the year as follows: Sessions, nineteen weeks; recesses, thirty-three weeks.

The example in delayed justice set by the Supreme Court is improved on by the lower State Courts.

There are a fixed and definite number of conditions that make for slow justice. Some obtain in one city, some in another. Unhappily for Philadelphia litigants, all of these delay causes are concentrated in that city. The examination, therefore, of a typical jury case as conducted in Philadelphia will throw light on the conditions that ought to be changed, not only in Philadelphia, but wherever they exist. The writer has selected as an illustration a case from his own docket, so that he might be personally responsible for dates and figures. The names of the parties are fictitious.

In 1902 the Block Company purchased a car-load of coal in Philadelphia from a party by the name of Naylor, and paid one hundred dollars in advance for the same. Naylor pocketed the money but never delivered the coal. On January 7, 1903, suit was begun to recover the money. In Philadelphia all suits for one hundred dollars or less must by law be started before a magistrate. There are twenty-eight of these, located in different parts of the city, who have jurisdiction in civil cases up to an amount not exceeding one hundred dollars, and receive annual salaries of three thousand dollars. Practically none of these magistrates are attorneys, and most of them have but a very rudimentary knowledge of the principles of law. On January 7, 1903, this case was tried, and the magistrate entered a verdict for the plaintiff for the full amount. Mr. Block was much elated until his attorney explained to him that an appeal to the Court of Common Pleas could be taken as a matter of right within the next twenty days, and that the suit must be started and tried all over again. The same thing would have been true if the magistrate had decided in favor of the defendant and Mr. Block had appealed. In other words, the Court of Common Pleas must try the case all over again, whichever side wins before the magistrate. "Remarkable!" observed Mr. Block, when this matter had been carefully explained to him. "I have to lose about ten dollars costs and witness fees, my own time and the time of four men, my attorney's time, and twenty days, before I can begin a suit that means something. The defendant loses his time, his witness fees, his attorney's time, and the money he pays to take an appeal. Everybody loses except the magistrate.

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That isn't justice—that's foolishness." Mr. Block's last sentence summed up the whole situation. Such a system of civil trials before a magistrate, either in Philadelphia or elsewhere, is not justice—it's foolishness. If the case must be retried before the court above, whichever side wins, why not start the suit there in the first place, and save a useless waste of time and money? Yet this waste of time is only the beginning. The allowance of an appeal for any or no cause and the retrial of the case in the court above not only emasculates the lower but smothers the upper courts. The great Court of Common Pleas of the County of Philadelphia, with practically unlimited jurisdiction, is two years behind because its lists are crowded with thousands of petty cases sent up by the magistrates. A suit for the collection of a ten-dollar board-bill may prevent the trial of one involving millions of dollars and the interests of every citizen in Philadelphia.

To return, however, to the long-suffering Mr. Block. In behalf of the plaintiff a statement of claim was drawn up and suit started all over again in the Court of Common Pleas, and in about thirty days the case was at issue, and in March, 1903, was entered in Court of Common Pleas No. 2, one of the five Courts of Common Pleas established in the city of Philadelphia. In October, 1904, one year and nine months after suit was started, the case first came to light on the trial list. It there appeared as No. 9 on a Monday's list. During this interval Mr. Block, who in New York had been accustomed to a trial in claims of less than three hundred dollars within a month, had been sending letter after letter to his attorney in a vain attempt to hasten a trial. In October, 1904, two of his witnesses were no longer in his employ, and had to be brought to Philadelphia at considerable expense. On Monday morning the trial of a prior case which stood number two on the list was begun, and Block and his witnesses settled down to wait with more or less patience for their turn. At one o'clock all jury trials ceased and the courts took up the hearing of motions, *i.e.*, applications of various kinds in connection with suits. Further inquiry on the part of Block elicited the information that not only were no jury trials taken up on Monday afternoons, but that no cases were fixed for Fridays, and that court closed at three o'clock instead of at four as in New York or five as in Brooklyn. He also found that jury trials were only held two weeks in the month and seven months in the year, there being no jury trials during the months of June, July, August, September, and December in Philadelphia, or an average of about fourteen weeks out of fifty-two, and began to understand why it took a jury case two years to be reached in Philadelphia. Accustomed to a practice where speed has been reduced to a system, Mr. Block also noted various other reasons for Philadelphia's delay, such as the fact that attorneys for the plaintiff were allowed two speeches at closing instead of one last speech, as in New York, that counsel were permitted to examine witnesses and sum up interminably instead of being limited, and that only twelve of the fifteen judges sat at any one time.

The next day Mr. Block was back again with his witnesses, and found case number two still under way. Happening to wander around the corridor to Court No. 3 on the same floor, he found it closed for the day because none of the cases on the list had been ready for trial. Very naturally, he inquired why, if Court No. 2 was crowded and Court No. 3 empty, cases could not be sent from one into the other. His attorney advised him that this was impossible, since the courts were not consolidated as in other cities, and, each court being a separate and distinct body, could take no jurisdiction of another's cases. Finally, soon after the recess of half an hour, which is deducted from the five-hour court-day in Philadelphia, Block was astounded to hear the court crier announce that all parties and witnesses in Monday's cases would be excused for the term. As a result of further heated inquiries he became acquainted for the first time with the notorious "two-day rule" prevailing in Philadelphia courts. This rule is that a certain number of cases are set down for trial each day. If any of these cases are not reached for trial on the day fixed, they are given another chance to be tried on the day following, taking precedence over the cases on that day's list. But if on the second day they are

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not reached, they are then marked off for the term and may not again appear on the trial lists for a number of months. This rule is as reasonless as the magistrates' trials which don't try. One long case (and it is not at all unusual for the trial of a case to take two days) may under this rule cause the useless expenditure of time and money for a score or more of parties, witnesses, and attorneys.

Mr. Block's case did not again come to the surface until May, 1905. In that month exactly the same performance was repeated, the case not being reached within the required two days. In 1905 the case was again on the trial list twice without being reached. By the end of that year a vital witness had located permanently in California, and Mr. Block shook off the dust of the Philadelphia courts from his shoes forever and abandoned his case.

The above is a typical instance of the results of what such a system of legalized delays will accomplish, not only in Philadelphia, but in Boston, New York, Pittsburgh, and the majority of our other large cities, where it takes from one to two years to obtain a trial in a jury case. The writer found that Naylor afterwards played this same trick on three other parties, taking payments in advance for coal that was never delivered, and keeping himself just this side of a criminal action. He knew that he could rely on a delay of probably from two to four years before any of the claims could be brought on for trial, and that he could count on the probability of the case being abandoned before that time, precisely as did happen in the Block case. The net results of the slow-justice system, as exemplified in this case, were that the plaintiff lost not only the amount of his original claim, but an amount far exceeding that in the value of his time, and in witness fees and other costs and disbursements; an attorney lost a client, for the odium of such a system must naturally attach to the attorneys forced to practice under it; and, worst of all, a rascal and others like him were encouraged to continue on their swindling way.

Another case from the writer's docket points the fact that even defendants do not always profit by long delays. In the spring of 1902 an intoxicated man entered the lobby of a hotel in Philadephia. He stumbled over a woven-wire mat placed in the entrance, injuring his knee-cap, and afterwards brought a suit for ten thousand dollars for damages against the owner of the hotel. The pendency of this suit harmed the credit of the hotel-owner, and he was most anxious to have the case brought on for trial, as it would probably either be dismissed or a verdict entered for the defendant. This suit was brought in the Common Pleas Court of Philadelphia No. 4, and was not reached for trial until February, 1905, when it was dismissed. For about three years the credit of this defendant was shadowed by this suit.

The writer feels that the facts as shown in the above cases make any comment unnecessary. In order to make certain that the conditions complained of are existing up to the very time of writing, the writer has referred to the trial list of the Courts of Common Pleas of Philadelphia appearing for February, 1909. In two cases in Common Pleas No. 2 the writer appears as counsel for the defendant. One case was begun on August 7, 1907, and the other on May 2, 1907. In the Court of Common Pleas No. 3 the writer appears in three cases as attorney for the plaintiff. One of these appears for the first time on the trial list two years and two months after suit was begun. The second was begun on April 6, 1903, and the third on August 8, 1907. In the Court of Common Pleas No. 5 the writer appears for a defendant in a suit begun February 29, 1908, and for another defendant in one begun in January, 1904. Owing to the position on the lists of these cases, there is really very little chance of any of them being reached in a month, and a delay of years more for any or all of them is not at all unlikely.

Many of the great organizations in the world of trade and commerce are beginning to share Mr. Block's opinion as to the quality of Philadelphia justice. One firm of international reputation has made it an invariable rule to settle all Philadelphia claims on a fifty per cent basis rather than litigate, although protecting its rights vigorously by suit in all other jurisdictions. The largest freight-claim collection agency in this country has recently announced its intention to bring no more suits in Phila-

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delphia until the present conditions are changed, the manager stating that from long experience he was convinced that it was necessary for a client to be immortal to be certain of getting a trial in that city. This attitude taken by trade shows what a far-reaching injury slow justice works to a city. As Justice Gaynor, one of the best-known judges in the Second Department of the State of New York, remarked before a Senate Commission in New York in 1904: "A commercial cause cannot live more than three months. In three years it is as dead as a door-nail. It has got to be tried speedily or it will never be tried."

Capital and commerce are loth to concentrate where rights cannot be enforced for years and where contract-breaking is encouraged by the immunity offered by delay. Conversely, statistics show that there is no greater stimulus to healthy trade than reforms which make for speedy justice in the courts. In Chicago, where delay and technicalities in the trial of cases have been recently abolished, there were seven hundred, or thirty-eight per cent, less bankruptcies during the first year under the new system than during the last year under the old.

In setting forth facts which demand the attention of the citizens who are responsible for them, there is no intention on the writer's part to bear hostile witness against courts before whose bar he is proud to practice. Criticism which suggests no remedy is apt to be nothing but a snarl, and from the writer's view the important point about the procedure and practice of law in New York and Philadelphia and Boston and other cities is not alone that it is wrong, but that it can be made right. England, where for centuries quibbles and technicalities and delays made good laws of no avail, is now a model to the countries of the world for orderly, even-handed, and, above all else, swift justice. In 1900 and 1901 twenty-three judges sitting in London took charge of all the litigation arising in England and Wales, with a population of thirty-two million five hundred thousand people. These judges sat not only in jury trials but also in admiralty, bankruptcy, probate proceedings, revenue, patents, trademarks, and other special proceedings which in this country are generally assigned to separate courts. In those years they tried eleven thousand two hundred cases. In those same years the city of New York in its Supreme Court employed some forty-three judges to take charge of the litigation of one city of about four million inhabitants. These forty-three judges tried less than half of the number of cases tried by the twenty-three London judges in the same time. Only about ten per cent of the English cases were appealed, against thirty-three per cent in New York, and only about twenty-nine per cent of the cases appealed were reversed, against forty per cent in New York; so that it is apparent that, with about one-half the number of judges, the city of London did twice the work that the city of New York accomplished in the same space of time, and did it over three times as well. In some cases in England final judgment can be obtained within two weeks after suit is begun, and in practically all cases within two or three months. To illustrate: On February 1, 1903, there was a collision between the steamships Dallington and Socotra. On February 13, 1903, the admiralty court gave judgment awarding the owners of the Dallington about four thousand pounds damages. The cases requiring the longest time to try are divorce suits, yet in one which the writer examined the suit was begun on April 9, 1902, and on May 2, 1902, a final decree was entered. The practice in Great Britain has been simplified by striking out everything that is unnecessary or technical. The judges there work like day laborers. Finally, the English people insist that an itemized account be published of the work done by their judges and the results obtained, so that the people who pay the judges may know whether they are getting their money's worth.

It is not necessary, however, to go so far afield as London to seek other instances of what determined legislation may do in freeing the law of its delays. Chicago stands to-day in the United States as a proof that the tortoise need no longer be the totem of justice. A few years ago it would have seemed impossible that any good thing in the way of swift justice could come out of Chicago, long hag-ridden by justice of the Bath-

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house John variety. Yet there came a time when the business men of that city, exasperated beyond endurance by notorious abuses in the administration of both civil and criminal law, claimed their birthright, and, with characteristic energy and common sense, organized a court for business men conducted on business lines. The Municipal Court of Chicago was organized by an Act of 1905. This court has a civil jurisdiction of all cases involving amounts up to one thousand dollars, and the great majority of suits come within that category. Cases are tried either with or without a jury as the litigants demand. Trials without a jury are had almost immediately, saving the litigants' jury fees, and include the greater part of the small cases. A constitutional amendment was adopted abolishing all the parasitic growth of magistrates and justices of the peace which so clog the wheels of justice in Philadelphia and other cities. A simple and economical system of keeping the records was formulated in connection with the hundred thousand cases which the Municipal Court now handles annually. Proceedings were authorized to make effective a judgment so that it could be collected, and all unnecessary technicalities and delays were abolished. There is no system of new trials in the courts above or appeals except for mistakes of law, nor any reversals unless the court of appeal finds that the mistake in the court below caused a failure of justice. The judges of the courts act in many respects like the directors of a corporation, and, like them, are directly answerable to the body appointing them. The costs of bringing a suit run from two dollars for a suit under two hundred dollars up to six dollars for a suit under one thousand dollars. Under one thousand dollars no pleadings are necessary. By law the judges must meet every month except in the month of August. By law they must turn in a sworn statement of work done by them, measured by hours per day. According to the standard of justice in the Supreme Court or in Philadelphia, Boston, or New York, the results obtained by this system are revolutionary. The constitutional right to a recess and the hereditary privilege of indefinite vacation seem to have been rudely overturned, judging by the sworn figures turned in by the twenty-seven judges of the Chicago Municipal Court for the first year of service. The general average day's work through the twelve months of the year from December, 1906, to November, 1907, inclusive, was 5.9 hours. The hardest-working judge achieved 7.1 hours daily, the laziest judge 5.2 hours. Besides an enormous volume of criminal cases for the year above specified, these judges tried and finally disposed of 30,877 out of 37,104 civil cases. In January, 1907, the amount of money judgments entered was eighty-five thousand nine hundred and six dollars. In November, 1907, it was one hundred and seventy-three thousand nine hundred and sixty-three, or over twice the amount at the end as at the beginning of the year, showing that the work increased in efficiency and results every month. Out of the whole volume of business the calendar is only from forty to fifty days behind instead of from one to three years, as in other jurisdictions, and even this will be made up during the vacation season.

The indirect value of this system of speed, efficiency, and simplicity is wonderful. Before this court was organized the majority of criminal cases were not tried until the expiration of from three months to three years after the commission of the offense. Of nineteen thousand arrests only about three thousand were bound over to the grand jury. Under the new system misdemeanors can be tried on the very day they are committed, and felonies within two to three weeks. As a result criminals are giving Chicago a wide berth. The number of arrests during the first year of the new system decreased from the number of the previous year by thirty-five thousand two hundred and seventy-one. On the other hand, even with this enormous decrease in the number of arrests there were fourteen hundred and twenty-seven more convictions. In civil suits the fact that cases will be heard very soon after they are begun leads to the settlement of a great many disputes and the prevention of many more, since the law's delays are one of the greatest inducements for unfair dealing of all kinds. The decrease in the number of bankrupt-

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cies has already been mentioned, and is undoubtedly due to the fact that before the abolishment of the justice of the peace system many honest debtors who could not collect their moneys owing to them in less than three years were harassed into bankruptcy. Under this new system debts are paid whenever possible and their dishonest incurment is decreasing yearly.

Gibbon wrote of the courts of the Roman Empire before the reforms of Justinian that—

> By dilatory and expensive proceedings a wealthy pleader obtained a more certain advantage than he could hope for from the accidental corruption of a judge.

This same condition exists in the majority of our large cities. In them justice is lost in a maze of technicalities and delays. London and Chicago have shown us the way out. They have shown us how law can be transformed from "the patrimony of the rich to the inheritance of the poor." The formula is a simple one—simplicity, industry, and publicity. The procedure must be pruned of all the undergrowth of useless formalities and outworn methods. The bench must be composed of men who can and will work. Finally, there must be that publicity about the quality and quantity of work done which will make for the highest standard. It is the exceptional man, be he judge or bricklayer, that can work without any oversight. The public which pays the wage of the judges should supervise their work.

CARLYLE'S LOVE LETTERS

BY LYMAN ABBOTT

IF you do not wish your love letters read by others, burn them yourself. If you leave them for posterity to burn, the temptation to read them may prove irresistible. It has proved irresistible in Carlyle's case: witness these two volumes of "The Love Letters of Thomas Carlyle and Jane Welsh."[1] The excuse for their publication is that Froude had already published some of them and the publication of the rest was justified. "The holy of holies having been sacrilegiously forced, desecrated, and polluted, and its sacred relics defaced, besmirched, and held up to ridicule, any further intrusion therein—for the purpose of cleansing and admitting the purifying air and light of heaven—can now be attended in the long run by nothing but good results." We repeat Mr. Alexander Carlyle's defense, and leave our readers to pass their judgment on it. The letters having been given to the public, we turn to them to learn such lessons as this life experience may have for the world.

[1] The Love Letters of Thomas Carlyle and Jane Welsh. Edited by Alexander Carlyle, M.A. With numerous Illustrations. Two volumes. John Lane Company, New York.

It was either a curious age or a curious group of people. All the elements of a first-class romance are here. Edward Irving, presently to become the most run-after preacher in all London, and to be known in this correspondence as "The Orator,' is engaged to Miss Martin. This does not prevent him from falling madly in love with Jane Welsh. Jane Welsh is affianced to George Rennie, but this does not prevent her from receiving love letters from Edward Irving and flattering attentions from other gentlemen. Heart-whole, she is apparently quite ready to carry on an interesting correspondence with any interesting gentleman who will correspond with her. She expresses herself brilliantly, enjoys the art of self-expression, and finds vent for her genius in correspondence. There are men's ladies as there are ladies' men, and Jane Welsh is a man's lady; enjoys men's society much more than the society of women—a fact which no man will lay up against her. "I declare," she writes, "I would rather be a kitten and cry mew! than live as I see many of my female acquaintances do, tearing each

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other's character to pieces and wearing out their lives in vanity and vexation of spirit. He was a wise man who thanked the gods that they had not made him a woman. There are twenty chances to one that he would not have been *wise* if they had."

She evidently did not entertain the same opinion of men. Alexander Carlyle gives a list of ten lovers, though without stating his authority, and he himself is not an authority. But her letters indicate at least half as many suitors during her Carlyle correspondence. Miss Jewsbury accuses her of being a flirt. "She had many ardent lovers, and she owned that some of them had reason to complain. I think it highly probable that if *flirting* were a capital crime she would have been in danger of being hanged many times over." This charge Carlyle resents. "If 'flirt' means one who tries to inspire love without feeling it, I do not think she ever was a flirt." We agree with Carlyle that she was not a flirt; but she was very much of a coquette. What is the difference? A flirt does not love, but tries to inspire love without loving. A coquette loves but plays with her love, sees the humor in it, laughs at her lovers and sometimes at herself, takes at times her stand with the rest of the world and becomes an amused spectator of her own romance. Flirtation is the false pretense of love; coquetry, its frolic. All men despise a flirt; most men like a woman all the better if she is something of a coquette. Flirtation ends with youth, but a mother will often play the coquette with her own children. Whether this is a good dictionary definition or not, it may serve to define what I mean by saying that Jane Welsh was not a flirt but was a coquette.

Edward Irving sought to be released from his engagement; Miss Martin declined; unreleased, he continued to write to Jane Welsh, whom he addressed as "my dearest friend," and assured her that his "affectionate and tender regard" for her "would long ago have taken the form of the most devoted attachment but for an intervening circumstance." This "intervening circumstance" was too much for him, and presently he married Miss Martin, and lived, let us hope, happily ever after. His disappointment did not break his heart, for after his marriage he wrote to "my dear Jane" that "my dear Isabella has succeeded in healing the wounds of my heart by her unexampled tenderness and affection," and that before another year he hoped to be "worthy in the eye of my own conscience to receive you into my house and under my care." Mrs. Irving does not seem to have shared this desire, and Jane Welsh, after hoping in vain for a more definite invitation, which apparently was never sent, came reluctantly to the conclusion that she was not really wanted: "His wife, unless she is a very different woman from what I take her to be, will hardly forgive me for the good I have done her; the recovery of a faithless lover, I should think, is a benefit for which one woman is not very likely to be very grateful to another"—a very sound judgment. Miss Welsh's letters to Irving have not been preserved. They may have been models of maidenly propriety; but we are skeptical. She enjoyed being made love to—which is not an uncommon, and in masculine eyes not a heinous, fault.

It was in the spring of 1821 that Irving introduced Carlyle to Jane Welsh. In 1822 Jane Welsh's fiancé went abroad to study, and so faded out from the story like a ghost at sunrise, and Edward Irving married. The Carlyle correspondence began. This resultant correspondence is the story of the siege laid by Thomas Carlyle to Jane Welsh, beginning June 4, 1821, innocently accompanying the loan of some books to be read, and ending October 9, 1826, with the triumph of a victorious lover: "My last blessing as a Lover is with you; this is my last letter to Jane Welsh: my first blessing as a husband, my first kiss to Jane Carlyle, is at hand."

No less determined spirit than Thomas Carlyle possessed could have won the victory. There was almost every impediment which writers of romance have conjured up to prevent the course of true love from running smoothly. Carlyle was poor, Jane Welsh a landed proprietress; Carlyle a laboring farmer's son, Jane Welsh the daughter of a physician—and the gap in England between labor with the hands and labor with the brain is almost impassable; Jane Welsh was a favorite of society, Carlyle a recluse and

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almost a boor; Jane Welsh brilliant, gay, effervescent, fond of life, Carlyle an implacable enemy of society, a devotee of books; and, finally, Jane Welsh's mother, who was a masterful woman and a shrewd judge of character, read the incongruity in their characters aright, foreboded much unhappiness for them both, did not and could not see that love might more than compensate for all the unhappiness, and, with all the force of a strong woman's will and all the devices of a shrewd woman's designing, resisted the coming together of the two. And Carlyle and love won in spite of all.

His first advance received a discouraging response; nothing but a card with the return of the books, and the incipient lover's name misspelled: "To Mr. Carslile, with Miss Welsh's compliments and very best thanks." His second advance fared not much better: a short note asking a second loan of books, and the name still misspelled in spite of Carlyle's remonstrance. But Carlyle's was not the faint heart that never won fair lady. His third letter contains what might have been a danger signal if Jane Welsh were really afraid of having a new lover: "I designed to thank you a hundred times for the Letter you honored me with. . . . To me the very seal has beauty in it. . . . If you were merely a very accomplished young lady, I would write to you very differently—if I wrote at all. As it is I somehow think you *understand* me." Neither this nor the next letter won any reply that has been preserved. Did they get any reply at all? It is uncertain. But when, in December, 1821, six months after Carlyle's first letter, at last there came a reply which has been preserved, the first tell-tale sentence was enough to have given new courage to a much more timorous lover than Carlyle: "Chance seems leagued with conscience in preventing me from writing to you. My mother has been beside me this whole day; and to sit down and deceive her before her very face required more audacity than I possess." And only a very timorous lover would have taken seriously her prohibition of future correspondence: "I will not write again. Do not urge me, lest you wear out my patience and with it my esteem." We wonder whether the next paragraph began over the page: "When you have finished your review of Faustus, send it to me with such a letter as my Mother may read without anger. And when you have written four and twenty pages of your Book, bring them." Perhaps the most exasperatingly enticing sentence was the postscript: "P. S. I know not how I shall get this to the Post Office. As I never go out, my going to-day voluntarily would excite surprise. What a Purgatory you have placed me in." He would have been a stupid lover who did not remember that the only escape from Purgatory is into Heaven. And Carlyle was not a stupid lover. Did we not say that Jane Welsh was a coquette?

Was it shrewdness in Carlyle or was it love—the shrewdest form of shrewdness—which led him to knock at the door that would be most likely to give access to Jane Welsh's heart—her literary ambition? She had a passion for self-expression, but had received no education to develop the art. For woman's education did not tend in that direction in the first quarter of the nineteenth century. Carlyle, with audacity, assumed almost in the beginning the office of tutor; wrote long letters of tutorial advice; gave her lists of books to read; counseled her to use her pen in writing; assured her of her genius, but even genius needs training: will she accept his counsels? If his letters are not all such as her mother could read without anger, there is plenty of staid literary counsel in them which could be read to the mother.

It is plain enough that he is in love with her from the outset. That she begins to be in love with him does not appear until the correspondence has lasted well on to a year. Then the tutorial correspondence becomes unsatisfying; and her womanly invention evoked something warmer: "By the by, I have got a new friend. I intend filling a sheet with his merits, so I shall say nothing of him at present." To increase the pleasing torment she adds: "Do not write till you hear of me from Haddington; for it is uncertain where I may be for the next fortnight." It is doubtful whether she was displeased that he disobeyed her command; and one can imagine her mischievous smile when she read: "What *are* the merits of your new friend?—that the old may try to rival

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him—or, if that be hopeless, at least to love him." She did not keep the old friend long in suspense as to the new one: "Now for my new friend who had almost escaped from my memory," followed by pages of description. "He is no every-day person, but he has no *genius*. I have just seen him twice! . . . He set out for London the day after the King's landing; set out though he might have supposed I would be in town that very day!—he is gone to Germany and Italy; it will be eighteen months before he returns. No matter." This is not the only time she played off another lover or *quasi* lover against Carlyle. But it is unmistakable play. Even Carlyle might, one would think, have seen through it. But if love is not blind, lovers are.

Whether he saw through it or not, he was not diverted from his siege, nor led to change his plan of approach. He urges her to devote four hours a day to study, and prescribes a course of history. She takes it up with great resolution; tries Hume, Clarendon, and at last in sheer desperation settles down to Rollin's "Ancient History," plowing through it with grim determination which her lover's grim earnestness has inspired in her. She attempts early rising to accomplish the task her tutor has set for her. "Many thanks for your long letter. It has already produced beneficial results. I have got up at seven these last two mornings." She assumes a patience very foreign to her nature in a despairing attempt to write because he has told her that she has genius. "One thing is certain—like another friend of yours, I have no genius, not a whit: yet I have planted myself at my desk, and almost sworn that there I will sit during my three full hours every morning with no book before me, no other instrument but pen and paper, that whether bright or stupid, sick or sicker, I may write *something* or undergo the pain of perfect idleness, whichever I prefer."

The love in the letters—in her letters—gets more luminous and warmer expression. At first he is "Dear Sir;" then "My Dear Friend;" then "My Dearest Friend;" then "My Guardian Spirit!" "My Good Angel!" "Forget or separate myself from thee? That will I never while I retain my senses." And yet she is not in love. Never! "Positively I cannot fall in love, and to sacrifice myself out of pity is a degree of generosity of which I am not capable. Besides, matrimony under any circumstances would interfere strikingly with my plans." True, she writes this apropos of other lovers. But Carlyle takes it all quite seriously and replies: "The time *will* come indeed when you must 'fall in love' and be wedded as others have been; it is the general law and must be fulfilled: but I fear not that I shall ever have the pain of seeing your happiness entrusted to one unworthy, however desirous of the charge, or the high ambitions of your youth given up for anything less sacred than the feelings of the heart, if these unhappily should come to oppose them. . . . If I had my way, you should not be married till—not till a considerable period after this." Did ever lover combine so ardent a passion with so cool a philosophy? Can any one blame her for occasionally summoning him out of his philosophical temper by displaying to him a rival lover?

At length the correspondence reached its inevitable though long-delayed crisis. Carlyle proposed to turn farmer if he could only get the land. "Laugh outright! but it is very true. I think how I should mount on horseback in the gray of the morning; and go forth among my lazy hinds; quickening every sluggish hand; cultivating and clearing, tilling and planting, till the place became a very garden round me. In the intermediate hours I could work at literature." Was her reply intended to lead him on? If so, it was shrewdly devised: "If you had land of your own, you would improve it! Suppose you improve mine. It is to be let at present, and I know none that has more need of improvement." Whether she meant to open the door or not, he did not wait to ask, but entered straightway: "You tell me—You have land that needs improvement, why not work on that! In one word, then: Will you go with me, will you be my own forever; and I embrace the project with my whole heart." The letter is a model love letter, which we will not destroy by mutilating quotations. And we will treat her reply with similar reserve. She had the good sense promptly to reject the farming project. Fancy Thomas Carlyle

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a farmer! giving the "intermediate hours" to literature. And she apparently rejected the other portion of the project with equal decision. "I love you, I have told you so a hundred times; and I should be the most ungrateful and injudicious of mortals if I did not; but I am not *in love* with you; that is to say, my love for you is not a passion which overclouds my judgment, and absorbs all my regard for myself and others."

Mr. Froude in his Biography of Carlyle takes this letter quite seriously, and concludes that Jane Welsh did not love her future husband. Carlyle knew better. When did a true womanly woman ever acknowledge to herself that she was in love, so long as she could by any possibility conceal the fact from herself? The farming project was given up; but not so the marriage project. Carlyle's proposal, "Will you be my own forever?" and Jane Welsh's rejection, "I am not in love with you," constitute, so far as this correspondence indicates, their only betrothal. Whatever sting there was, if there was any, in that carefully defined and qualified rejection, was taken out by the letter which followed just one month later: "It would be difficult for you to do anything that could make me doubt the propriety of your judgment: I know not how your spirit has gained such a mastery over mine in spite of my pride and stubbornness: but so it is. Though self-willed as a mule with others, I am tractable and submissive toward you; I hearken to your voice as to the dictates of a second conscience, hardly less awful to me than that which nature has implanted in my heart." And yet she thought she was not in love with him. Surely the heart is deceitful above all things, even when it is not desperately wicked. His proposal was written in January, 1825; in October, 1826, they were married.

And lived happily ever after? That is a question. They were both invalids, more or less dyspeptic, nervously high-strung, moody and fitful in temperament, and she had a jealous microbe in her disposition. But that they were lovers to the last and devoted to each other in good and evil fortune, no one, we think, could well doubt who had ever been in love himself. Which leads us to doubt whether James Anthony Froude was ever in love.

A CO-OPERATIVE COAL-MINING COMPANY

BY D. J. McADAM

TWO directly opposite opinions prevail concerning the share of profits received by the owner of a bituminous coal mine and his employees. One view is epitomized in the name "Coal Baron," which is applied to the operator or owner of a mine. It is used to stigmatize him as an oppressor of labor, as having grown very rich at the expense of his employees and the consuming public. This opinion is held by a majority of said public and by many of the miners.

The other view is held by many operators. It is that the species of Coal Baron is extinct, unless a specimen here and there is hidden away in some trust to which he is furnishing coal. It is that so many mines have been opened, the efficiency of modern machinery has so increased production, that supply has much outrun demand. Prices have declined, wages and cost of equipment have advanced, until labor is now absorbing almost all the profits, until a mine is often a grievous burden rather than a source of profit.

Neither view ought to be correct. A great business which employs so many people and affects so many people ought to make neither barons nor paupers. Capital employed in coal mines is entitled to interest, compensation for the great

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risk and uncertainty attending its employment, and profit enough to replace the capital which is being continually used up. The miner ought to receive enough not only to enable him to live, but to accumulate a competency and transmit a better heritage than he received. How are these two results to be attained at the same time? Can there not be a plan devised in which, by a sliding scale, wages and profits may automatically adjust themselves so as to give their just dues to both owner and worker?

Co-operation has in it the promise of a solution. An experiment was lately inaugurated in a mine near Terre Haute, Indiana, which has some features that are unique. The plant with which the experiment was made consists of 1,260 acres of coal land, coal vein seven and one-half feet thick, a mine capable of producing five hundred tons in a day of eight hours, and capable of being easily developed in a few months to double that capacity. The mine is thoroughly equipped with the best modern machinery. It is near a good market, coal good, and conditions of roof and bottom of the mine such that miners can produce an unusually large amount of coal per day. The miners are mostly native Americans, more than ordinarily intelligent, many of them owners of real estate.

These miners entered into negotiations with the owners of the mine for a lease for a year, with privilege of renewal. The officers of the mining company believe in the possibilities of co-operation, and agreed to a lease on terms most liberal to the miners in order that they might be encouraged to make the experiment. Looking to the safeguarding of the property, the following provisions were embodied in the lease:

First. The miners shall form a corporation with legal responsibility.

Second. All supplies for repairs about the mine and all labor must be paid in cash. This was necessary so that no labor or material liens could be entered against the property.

Third. The mine must be operated in accordance with the plan already adopted for its development, and in accordance with best engineering practice. The mine must be kept in good physical condition.

The compensation to the mine-owners was to be determined as follows:

First. Rails, props, and other necessary supplies shall be bought out of the gross receipts for coal sold.

Second. For three months miners and all laborers employed in producing coal shall be paid in full in accordance with the scale governing the Miners' Union in the Terre Haute District, before any profits shall be distributed.

Third. For the first three months the lessor company shall receive one-fourth of the net profits after deducting wages and expenses. If there are no profits, the owners of the mine receive nothing for the coal taken out or the use of their machinery.

Fourth. After three months, the lessor company shall receive five cents a ton and one-fourth of the net profits, after deducting wages and expenses.

A charter was obtained from the State of Indiana, incorporating the "Union Mining Association." A company was formed. It adopted by-laws containing the usual provisions and the following distinctive ones:

"1. All stockholders must sign these by-laws.

"2. No debts shall be incurred by this company, and no director or body of directors shall have authority to contract any debts or obligations. Purchases must be made only for cash.

"3. The association and members of this association shall be governed by the Terre Haute agreement concerning scale of wages and mine conditions.

"4. Every person working in or around the mine shall be a stockholder in the Union Mining Association.

"5. Every stockholder agrees to divide losses accruing by reason of the operation of this mine, and hereby instructs the bookkeeper of the company to check off his wages any losses which accrue to said company by reason of the operation of the mine.

"6. Every stockholder hereby agrees to have the said bookkeeper check off his wages the sum of five dollars to pay for one share of stock in the United Mining Association.

"7. Any member shall have the right to give up his membership by assigning

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his certificate of stock back to the treasurer of this company. The United Mining Association, however, shall be in no wise liable for the return of the five dollars paid for such stock. Only one share of stock shall be issued to one member, and each member shall have only one vote.

"8. Each member hereby agrees to hold no other member, or the association as a body, responsible for his death or any accident which may befall him during his work in or around the mine."

They started out with a membership of eighty-five. The capital stock at first subscribed was therefore only $425. A large capital is not necessary for such an association, as the principal outlay of money in coal-mining is for miners' wages, and in the matter of wages the men were both creditors and debtors. They elected seven of their number as directors. The directors elected President, Secretary-Manager, Treasurer, and Sales Agent. The only salaried officer besides those in or about the mine was Secretary-Manager, who received one hundred dollars a month, with his salary subject to assessment in case of loss, as miners' wages were.

The company commenced to mine coal. The rates for pick mining in that district are sixty cents mine run, ninety cents steam lump. The following schedule of wages earned during the second half-month will show the earning power of the miners in the conditions under which they were working. There were thirteen working days of eight hours. All the stockholders had a chance to work full time. I give only the wages of a few of those who worked as many as eleven days, taking them as they come on the pay-roll:

Days worked.	Total wages.	Wages per day.	Days.	Total.	Per day.	Days.	Total.	Per day.
12...	$51.67	$4.31	13..	$55.24	$4.25	13..	$34.17	$2.50[1]
11....	70.47	6.41	13...	62.89	4.84	13...	53.76	4.14
13....	49.62	3.82	12...	58.71	4.90	13...	56.16	4.32
11....	44.50	4.04	11...	49.88	4.54	11...	49.62	4.52
12....	45.04	3.76	12...	50.24	4.20	12...	74.09	6.18
13....	50.00	3.85	11...	51.25	4.66	13...	53.03	4.10
13....	105.52	8.12	13...	75.53	6.81	11...	57.09	5.18
11....	57.75	5.25	11...	79.83	7.26	12...	59.18	4.96
13....	58.03	4.50	11...	62.09	5.47	13...	65.58	5.05
12....	47.39	4.00	12...	52.89	4.41	13...	57.33	4.41

[1] Just learning.

By examining the above figures it will be seen that if co-operation gives the miner a "full month's work" and a "full month's pay," it will give him a "full dinner-pail." Practically every man received as much as a hundred dollars a month; one as much as two hundred and ten dollars a month.

During the same time the writer had two teams plowing by the day. He paid the owners their own price. For the two men and four horses he paid eight dollars a day, or less than was earned by the best one of these miners. The miners always got a full month's work. The mine ran steadily while other mines in the locality were running three or four days in the week. The first half-month, or first "pay," the receipts for coal just paid expenses, wages in full, and no royalty to owners of the mine. The second half-month the receipts paid expenses, miners' wages, and sixty-six dollars for repairs. The next three half-months, owing to the extreme depression in business and low prices and the plan of always selling for cash, the receipts were not enough to pay full wages. One "pay" the assessment ran as high as twenty-five per cent. But even at that, the monthly wages ranged from $80 to $150 a month—twice as much as the miners in other neighboring mines were earning. Many other mines were not running at all.

Co-operation along the lines of this experiment will solve some of the problems and remove the causes of complaint which I mentioned at the outset.

First. It makes a liberal sharing of profits between mine-owner and mine-worker. It gives the mine-owner, in a low market, a minimum price for the depletion of his coal land. It gives the miner, for his wages, all that the product of his labor brings in the market. In a good market it gives the mine-owner a share in the good times, and gives the miner compensation for lower wages in hard times, and automatically increases his wages without waiting for the often tardy advance by his employer.

Second. It settles all labor disputes. The hard and fast scale of the Union which keeps its men idle, rather than accept wages which the market can stand, no longer hampers free action, for the miner cannot be expected to pay himself more than he gets for the product of his labor.

Third. It conserves two of the great resources of our Nation.

If the mine-owner gives his coal away and pays the miners more than he gets

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for his coal, he gives of his capital what cannot be recovered. If he keeps his mine idle except for pumping, he must sell his coal to pay interest on his investment. So far as he is concerned, if he operates at a loss, or does not operate, he throws away his capital. If the miner is idle three days in the week, he loses three days each week from the capital of his life. If lost, it can never be recovered. Forests wasted may grow again, fields impoverished may be fertile again, but the miner's capital of days for work can no more be recovered than the coal which has been mined.

Co-operation can keep the mine working so as to give the miner a full month's work and the owner a full month's profit. The principal difficulty, however, lies in the character of a large proportion of the miners. If wages are high and profits good, many of them want to lie off until expenditures catch up with profits. If wages have to be scaled, they become impatient and will not trust the future to even it up.

AN ANTIQUATED IDEAL

BY ELLA BOND JOHNSTON

I RECENTLY stood looking out of the back library window of a house in a big city of the Middle West.

The view from this second-story back window included a portion of the sky, the rear view of the houses opposite with all the space between, devoted as usual in our city building to an antiquated ideal. From the window where I stood to the back window of the house opposite must have been about one hundred and fifty feet, which distance, with slight variations, prevailed between opposite houses throughout the length of the block; so that I was overlooking a generous and valuable bit of the earth's surface, inclosed by the surrounding houses but open above to plenty of air and sunshine.

While I was looking at the shed kitchens opposite, and pondering on the front door, back door, parlor, kitchen architecture which seems an inevitable expression of our civilized effort to house ourselves comfortably with the best foot foremost, my hostess came into the room and asked me what I found so very absorbing from the back window.

I replied that I was meditating on a curious phase of human nature that keeps men forever doing things the same old way, although there is no longer any need for it, or common sense in clinging to the old method.

She brightened at once with interest, being a wide-awake club-woman. "Well, what is it?" she asked.

"Tell me," I replied, "why the backs of all the houses opposite are so inferior to the fronts? I noticed when we were passing on that street yesterday that the fronts were quite substantial and attractive in appearance, and now this view shows such inferior design, workmanship, and materials. Could anything be more uninteresting and forlorn than that row of back doors? Why should it be so?"

"Oh, well," she said, "of course houses must have back doors, and, you know, building can be cheapened by skimping the back part. No one sees it, anyway."

"We see it," I replied, "and every one in this row of houses sees that row of back doors about as often as they look out of their front windows on the beautiful houses across the street. Besides, all your ashes and garbage are collected from the front basement door, are they not? What need, then, have you here in the city for the back-door idea?"

"I don't know," my hostess answered. "I had not thought of it in that light."

"Neither have many other people; they need more light to help them *see* and *think* about it. It seems a foolish survival of the old way of the early settler,

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of turning the back door towards the woods. But my meditations include more than the back doors. Please tell me what all these inclosures or pens are for?"

"Do you mean," she asked, looking rather puzzled, "that corner of our yard where we used to keep the dog?"

"Oh, no," I said, "I mean all those big oblong pens that are fenced off by the high board fences. They look like the pens at the stock-yards, and there seems to be one for each back door."

She laughed a little foolishly, and said something not particularly gracious about my having lived too long in a country town, and then she informed me that those pens were back yards, and that there was one apiece for each family.

"But what are they for?" I insisted. "It is no place for pigs or chickens or even dogs here in this crowded city. You keep the wood and coal in the cellar, and surely no Christian would think of keeping a stable here in one of these back yards to taint the air and breed flies to endanger the health of his neighbors." Then I added, in friendlier tone, as I looked out, "Evidently the soil is not good for trees. I see so few, and they are very small; but perhaps in summer these yards are flower gardens?"

"Yes, indeed," she said, catching at my last suggestion; "the yard opposite had fine hollyhocks; I could see the tops over the fence. I had one large sunflower, and the neighbors on the north had nasturtiums, I know, for they came through the knot-holes in the fence, hunting the sunny side, and we got most of the blossoms."

"Why didn't you take down your fence and let your neighbor have more sunshine on her flowers?"

"Oh, dear me!" she said, "we could not open our yard into theirs. We do not know those people at all. You do not understand how it is to live in a great city."

"No, I suppose I do not," I reluctantly confessed; and then I went on, "I met those same neighbors on the street as I came in one afternoon, and they looked, to my unsophisticated eye, very much like human beings. I do not believe they would seek to harm you if the fence were down."

My dear hostess smiled a little at my sarcasm, and said, "Perhaps you are right in their case, but we certainly could not open our yard to the neighbors on the south, for they have boys that climb over the fence too often now after their balls."

"Of course they do," I exclaimed, "any boy would. Boys ought to have public playgrounds. I am sure they don't want the fences down; it would rob them of a peculiar pleasure. I know a boy who habitually shunned the front gate—the nearest way to school—and, going through the back yard, climbed the back fence when the gate in it stood wide open. Boys like fences and ramparts and walls to scale. It is a part of the natural dross of their natures that ought to be civilized out of grown men. *They* ought to be willing to give up their precious fences for the sake of the general beauty of the city; especially since fences are usually ugly and keep out neither boys nor burglars. What need have you, really, for these individual yards?"

"For one thing certainly," she replied: "on Monday morning they are needed."

"Yes, very true," I assented, "but the week's washing would dry without the fences, and it would not seriously disturb a blooming garden."

My good friend looked as though she felt a trifle impatient with what seemed to her my impractical and foolish notions, and I hastened to say, "Come, friend, let us look on the brighter side. Let us sit here by this big window and dream awhile about what might be done in all the space between the back doors of the houses surrounding this city block.

"In the first place, we will take down the fences and every unnecessary shed to clear the way for the new picture. I know we will be surprised to find what a large plot of ground and what a restful feeling of space we will have right here in the crowded city. In this portion of the earth's surface, covered with soil, lying open to the air and sunlight, and a constant water supply near at hand, we will have all the essential elements of a garden; and a garden, you know, is still a possible earthly paradise, albeit we were ejected from Eden.

"If you must be individualists and

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insist on your 'own vine and fig tree,' replace your fences with hedges or low wire fences covered with vines. These will keep the babies corralled, each with his own sand pile, and are as boy and burglar proof as board fences. Each householder could have the selfish right to make his plot as beautiful as possible, plant the flowers, shrubs, and small trees he most likes, and hide the defects of the back-door architecture by climbing roses, vines, and window-boxes. You could then look down from your window on a little park or garden—a patchwork garden, to be sure,—but certainly much more beautiful than that which we now see.

"But," I continued, "there is another view of this you might take, and a saner one too, I think. Can my audience of one stand some more preaching?" I stopped to inquire.

"Go on," she replied, good-naturedly; "you ride your hobby bravely."

I bowed my thanks and proceeded.

"You must allow me a smile over your idea of exclusiveness, which is so deliciously inconsistent. You feel that it is perfectly proper to ignore or even mistrust your neighbors, yet you hang on to the same strap with them going down town, you stand on one another's toes at the same bargain counter, and crowd in the same lunch-rooms. You endure together uncomplainingly the same smoke, dirt, and noise. It is all beyond my powers of understanding.

"I should think, if so many thousands of you insist on living in a heap, and want to live decently, you would have to be sensible and learn to have reasonable and sympathetic consideration for every one in the heap. You are bound to be more democratic, and have many things in common, even back yards as well as streets. Another thing is true also; we have not learned really to care for beautiful living even for ourselves. We only want to pretend we do by showing a good front to the community. We have not waked up to the fact that in city life the community is much in evidence in every direction, and we will need to be beautiful all round. It is impossible that we think only of ourselves. The whole visible expression of life touches all of us. We can't avoid it. The ugliness of our neighbor's back yard sticks in our eye whether we will or no. It seems our only defense that we become good democrats and take a hand in planning the best and most beautiful conditions of life for all the people.

"But let us return to our dreaming. Suppose the people in this block should come together and decide to follow some general plan for beautifying all these yards, what a loveliness might not your common effort create, that would in truth be a 'joy for all.' Wouldn't it sweeten your days and be an inspiration to carry you through the unavoidable trials of life, to have outlook from your library window on such a beauty spot?"

"Yes, it would," she said. "I need inspiration more than you know, but I am sure the people in this block would never stand for anything so democratic. This is not a very wealthy neighborhood, but the people are of the better class, and generally well educated and cultured."

"I will admit they may be educated, but I can't believe that any longer in this day people can lay claim to being cultured who are ignorant and unmindful of the welfare of any of the people, or who fail to reverence and preserve the natural beauty of the earth, even though they build great cities on it."

Fortunately, just here the door-bell rang and my hostess left the room, saving herself any further sermonizing.

I stood a long while that morning looking out over those dreary back yards and thinking how many times in even greater dreariness they were repeated in the blocks of that big city. To the depression of this vision I added also the memory of all the dirty back yards, side streets, and alleys I had seen as I passed through cities, towns, and villages on my long journey to that Western city.

It made an overwhelming picture of the failure of man to nest himself comfortably, simply, and beautifully on the surface of the earth.

This is his problem, and it is the tragedy of civilization that he has failed so signally in solving it.

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PROFANITY IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

BY ALFRED E. STEARNS

PRINCIPAL OF PHILLIPS ACADEMY, ANDOVER

NO man who is brought into close relations with the youth of our American schools and colleges to-day can fail to be impressed with the startling prevalence among them of the use of profanity. It is difficult to prove that this evil is more general or widespread than it was five, ten, or twenty years ago. Yet I find a pretty general agreement, among schoolmasters at least, that the use of profanity by our American boys has noticeably increased within the last few years. My own experience tends strongly to confirm this judgment. But whether on the increase or not, the prevalence of this evil is so manifest, and its effects so damaging to the individual and to the community, that it may well challenge our most serious attention and our most sober thought.

This vice, if I may use the term, seems to be in large measure peculiarly characteristic of our American life. At least it does not flourish among other Anglo-Saxon peoples as it does with us.

A friend of mine, who was for many years intimately associated with the boys of several of our leading American schools, and who during the past few years has been equally closely identified with the student life of the leading schools and universities of Great Britain, recently wrote me as follows: "There is one great difference between English and American youth, and that is that the former very seldom swear. I have been here over a year, and only once have I heard an oath on this side of the 'pond.'"

Surely such a contrast as this is not to the credit of our American youth.

It is not my purpose to attempt to analyze the underlying causes of this unfortunate situation. Briefly and in a general way I think these may be classed under two heads. First, a natural danger in our broadly democratic life which tends to level downward as well as upward; second, the striking elimination from our American home life of religious teaching and influence, which of necessity breeds lack of reverence for things holy, and eventually for law and order and authority. Neither of these causes can be easily removed. Their removal would no doubt speedily cure the evil in question, but with the definite conditions that confront us the problem must be solved, if at all, in other ways.

So far as my experience enables me to judge, the use of profanity is not confined to any one class or type of boy. It flourishes alike among rich and poor, among boys from the East and West, North and South; among those who have enjoyed the advantages of respectable homes as well as among those who have early been turned adrift to fight their own way in the world.

It will be generally found, I think, that boys who indulge in profanity are pretty definitely divided into two classes: those who have early been contaminated by unfortunate surroundings and who have accepted as a matter of course the loose language of their companions; and those who have adopted loose language in a spirit of bravado, the spirit of the braggart who seeks to impress upon his mates a false idea of his independence and importance, or who perhaps fears the taunts of his mates if he seems to fail to stoop to the level of their language and ways. Few boys will admit that this latter explanation applies in their cases, yet I believe that the majority may be classed in this group. The former are boys who have suffered from their environment, and are deserving of our pity and sympathy; the latter have little to offer to excuse their folly, and would doubtless profit, at the outset at least, by the liberal use of the birch rod.

How best shall we deal with these two classes of offenders? In the first class the problem, so far as it concerns our schools and colleges, is not a difficult one.

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In the main these boys are seeking an education with a definite and serious purpose. They are striving to lift themselves above the old environment, and they are quick to discern what the best spirit of an institution stamps as unworthy, and also that on which it sets the mark of approval. In their desire to lift themselves to higher levels they will generally, in time at least, discard the superficial weaknesses of their former life. In their cases the leveling process works upward. Let me illustrate.

Several years ago a boy entered Phillips Academy who for years had served as an ordinary sailor before the mast. He was bright, energetic, and ambitious, and attained prominence in scholarship and in the general activities of school life. But on shipboard he had acquired as a matter of course the loose language of his mates, and he was known throughout the school as the most profane man of his time. Before many months had passed his mates noticed an improvement in his language. By the end of the year he was never heard to swear. A friend ventured to comment on the change and to ask the reason for it. This, in substance, was the reply:

"When I entered school, it was as natural for me to swear as to breathe. Most of the time I was not even conscious of the fact that I was swearing. Before long I noticed that the boys whom I had learned to respect—the best fellows in the school—didn't swear. Consequently I made up my mind that swearing wasn't the thing, and I determined to give it up."

But the boys of the second class furnish us with a far more difficult problem. These boys are the victims of false ideas and false standards of values. Their ambitions are apt to be superficial, and the seriousness of their purpose may often be questioned. While profanity may and generally does become with them almost an unconscious habit, the first step is easy to detect and to explain. The average boy takes a certain pride in impressing upon his mates a sense of his importance. He may do this in various ways. Actions are his most convincing arguments, but if he is not a boy of conspicuous activity language becomes his easiest medium. Doubtless he has no real liking for profanity, but, yielding to that insinuating temptation, so common among boys, to avoid being laughed at for his goodness, or to win a seeming approval for his daring, he stoops for the moment to what his conscience condemns, and in a spirit of reckless bravado utters his first oath. The second step is easier. The boy notices that his words have made an impression; that some of his mates are more disposed to regard him as a "good fellow;" that others are seemingly somewhat awed by his audacity. Satisfied that his mates are disposed to be impressed, he easily forms the habit of doing that which at first required an effort. How many boys have been wrecked on this treacherous shoal!

Here we find one of those paradoxes that frequently meet us in boy nature and that perplex and baffle. No boy is more genuinely and universally despised among school-boys and college men than is the braggart and swaggerer, the boy whose boastful words surpass the valor of his deeds. The profane boy himself will generally denounce most vehemently that boy who, in his judgment, seeks to impress his mates with a sense of greatness and importance which his life and acts do not justify. Yet, all unconsciously apparently, he is guilty of that very sin which in others he most severely condemns. To illustrate again:

Recently I had occasion to talk with a boy who had been reported to me as developing a startling freedom in the use of profanity. The boy came from a good home, had been carefully brought up, and to my knowledge had been free from the habit during his first year in the school. I told him frankly of the reports that had come to me, and of my anxiety for him. In the course of our conversation reference was made to a recent chapel talk in which the explanation of and the arguments against profanity were in substance those given above. The lad was honest, and frankly admitted that he was guilty of the charges preferred against him. "But," he added, "I don't agree with your explanation of the causes. They don't apply in my case. I hate a braggart."

"When did you learn to swear?" I asked.

"On my father's ranch out West last summer," was the reply.

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"But didn't you begin with some idea of boasting, or at least of making yourself appear other than you really were?" I inquired.

"No, indeed," he answered.

"Suppose we analyze your case," I suggested. "The first oath didn't come easy to you, did it?"

"No."

"It required an effort on your part, and back of that effort there must have been a motive. Now, tell me honestly, wasn't your motive in this case to win the approval of those rough cowboys with whom you were thrown? Didn't you really believe that, if you swore, your rude companions would think a little more of you, that you would 'stand in' with them a little better?"

The boy was silent for a moment, and then replied: "Why, really, that was just it, I think. But I never thought of it in that way before."

There is still another characteristic of the profane boy that should justly condemn him in the eyes of his companions. He is unreliable. In an emergency he will generally prove himself a coward. This may sound severe, but my experience has proved it to be true. In athletic activities of school and college days I came in close personal contact with boys of varying types. Again and again it has been proved to me that the habitually profane boy is not to be relied on when the hard tests come. He may be the most brilliant player on the team. When the game is going right, he may be the most conspicuous performer. But put him to the real test, when coolness, self-control, and courage can alone ward off defeat, and he will prove himself incompetent. Nor is this to be wondered at. In all contests, whether they be of the playground or of the world's strenuous life, in battle, in disaster, in great crises, the men who have risen to the emergencies and have proved themselves equal to the occasions are the quiet, determined, unostentatious men of self-control in action as well as in speech, who have confidence in themselves and in their own powers alone.

I have said that the prevalence of profanity in our schools and colleges is a serious evil. We must make our boys realize this. The evil must be revealed to them in its true aspects. The mark of disapproval should be indelibly stamped upon it wherever and whenever it appears. The highest type of citizenship and the truest manhood cannot be realized if this incubus remains. In itself profanity is vulgar. It has no place in the accomplishments of a true gentleman. It indicates in the individual shallowness and superficiality. It betrays clearly lack of reverence, a lamentable weakness in our American life to-day.

PUBLIC OPINION

A TARIFF FALLACY

In your issue of May 1 is a letter from Everett P. Wheeler as to the duty on sugar, in which the writer, who assumes to speak for the consumer, reaches the conclusion that for the benefit of 12,000 persons every consumer in the United States is compelled to pay two cents per pound more for his sugar, making an average per capita tax of $1.50 a year, which he considers burdensome and unjust to the man of small income. The letter is interesting in showing how different deductions may be drawn from the same facts by taking different points of view.

It is inaccurate to assume that the only persons benefited by the domestic production of beet sugar are those who are directly engaged in the industry, and whom Mr. Wheeler computes at 12,000. To these should be added the families of the workers who are dependent on them for support. Assuming that each person has, as wife, parent, or child, four persons so dependent on him, would at once raise our figures from 12,000 to 60,000. But this population must be provided with clothing, food, shelter, and pleasure. Executive, professional, and clerical assistance will be required. Tools and machinery must be furnished the farm and the refinery. All this not only requires the service of many thousand other people for the benefit of the original 60,000, but these supplementary workers and their families must also be furnished with like food, shelter,

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etc., while they are also providing for the active workers on the sugar beets, thus enormously increasing the number of those who are directly or indirectly dependent on the industry for their support. It seems safe to compute that the number of persons so engaged would, together with their dependent families, reach the number of several hundred thousand. It is the old story of the dollar bill which passed from hand to hand, paid half a dozen debts, and still remained available. Nor is it sound to say that these people might be engaged in other occupations, for if that were the case, they would, if successful, tend to displace others now engaged therein. By establishing the business of raising sugar beets, competition is decreased in other lines by withdrawing therefrom men and acreage devoted to the new pursuit.

But if an unduly large profit is made at the present time, or even an ordinarily reasonable profit, the result will be to draw more men into the business, so that the domestic production will be increased, and, when it exceeds the domestic consumption, competition will set in which will reduce the price to the consumer. I would gather from Mr. Wheeler's letter that the country produces only about one-fifth of what it consumes, and I should judge from his figures, and understand the fact to be, that the domestic production is increasing. If it should increase to the point of supplying our domestic market, it would furnish employment or support, directly or indirectly, to many hundred thousand people, possibly a million in all. Internal competition, saving of freight, and new economies would eventually result in lowering the price; but, assuming that it shall permanently remain higher than what the same article costs abroad, the reason will lie in the higher cost of labor which enters into all domestic products, and few Americans care to see their income reduced, though they may have no objection if it happens to the other fellow.

But Mr. Wheeler further assumes that to accomplish this object we are paying an additional tax which he computes to be particularly offensive to the poor man. Now, sugar, while a staple article of food, is also an article of luxury, and, in the form of desserts, cakes, candies, etc., must be much more largely consumed by the well-to-do than by the poor, and this would result in a tax graduated to the income and not levied per capita, and to that extent would be more equitable. Again, the expenses which this tax defrays would have to be met in any event, and if not by this tax then by another, which would also have to be met by the people. Thus we have, as the result of a tax which must be paid in some form, one so imposed as to be fair in its distribution and which at the same time creates a condition that affords employment or support to a large number of our countrymen, keeps a constantly increasing amount of capital in circulation among ourselves, and to some extent reduces the stress of competition in other lines.

The vice of Mr. Wheeler's argument, as in many others, is that he assumes the presence of two distinct classes, the consumer and the producer, and then proceeds on the theory that the former should be preferred. We are all consumers, but if we include among the producers, as we should, all who are, directly or indirectly, dependent on their industry for their support, we are nearly all producers, and there are not two classes, but one. The producers directly include all our farmers, miners, manufacturers, and most of our mechanics. It should include their families and those to whom their industry gives employment. The man who consumes and does not produce is a drain on society, and should the question arise as to whose interest should be preferred, the man who creates wealth should be heard, and this would directly or indirectly include nine-tenths of our population. As a result, all must be treated alike, and since it would do a man little good to favor him as a consumer if you at the same time decreased his earning power as a producer, it would not be right to favor him as a consumer by decreasing another's earning power as co-producer.

The application of the principle of the protective tariff should be made to all industries equitably, and it is not logical to single out a particular pursuit and draw the class-line of producer and consumer between those engaged therein and the balance of their fellow-citizens who consume their product, but at the same time produce other articles for the first to consume.

C. N. RIGGINS.

San Francisco, California.

At the request of The Outlook, Mr. Wheeler has written the following reply:

To perceive the fallacy of Mr. Riggins's argument we must go below the surface. There is much land in the United States naturally adapted to the sugar beet. When this is properly cultivated, the residue, after the sugar is extracted, pays for the cost of extracting the sugar. The sugar is clear profit. Without any aid from the tariff, this land can be cultivated profitably.

When a bonus of a cent and three-quarters per pound is added, men are tempted to grow beets on land not naturally adapted for that

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crop. The bonus enables them to do this and not lose money. And it tempts the producers to use slovenly methods, instead of cultivating to the best advantage. This has notably been the case in Louisiana. In like manner, when Siemens invented a method of making glass that was much cheaper than any other known, the American manufacturers refused for years to work under his patents because the tariff on glass excluded foreign competition. All this is wasteful. It adds to the cost of production, diminishes the total product, and consequently the workman's share in this product. His nominal wage may increase, but the cost of living increases more rapidly.

If the artificial stimulus of a high tariff were removed, business of all sorts would seek the natural channels. Goods would be made, and sugar, rice, wheat, and all other articles of food would be produced, where natural advantages were the greatest. The workmen would require food, clothes, and shelter just as they do now, but would get more for their wages than they now do. This would increase demand, and wages would rise.

It is a mistake to suppose that high wages imply high cost of production. On the contrary, the best-paid labor is generally cheapest in the end, because the more productive.

The radical vice of the present tariff is putting a tax on material—on coal, ore, lumber, and the like. It thus increases the cost of production without benefiting any one but the owners of the mines and forests. And this tax is cumulative. The increased cost of the ore makes the pig iron dearer. The iron founder makes a profit on the increased cost of the pig. The structural iron that goes into the building is sold at a profit still further increased. And in the last analysis this profit comes out of the tenant. The same is true of the lumber that goes into the frame building. The most burdensome feature of the present tariff is the increase in rents which its heavy tax on all building material has caused.

The argument that a high tariff on a particular article attracts capital and leads to competition in the manufacture of that article does not look far enough. That is its first effect. The wasteful competition that follows ruins the smaller manufacturers, and their factories are swallowed up by the larger, who combine and form a trust, which destroys competition. This is just what has happened in the sugar, ore, and iron business, and in many others. A high tariff is the mother of trusts.

As to the revenue side of the sugar duty, let me say this. It does produce a large revenue. But it is a mistake to suppose that the rich man consumes sugar in proportion to his riches. His large expenditure is in other things. When he pays seventy-five cents for a pound of fancy sweets, the sugar that enters into the article costs perhaps five cents. The poor man uses sugar as a necessary food; the rich man uses its product as a luxury. But the same tax is levied on the pound of sugar; and it is paid by rich and poor alike.

It is true, as Mr. Riggins says, that in one sense all are consumers and all producers. But most of the consumers are injured and not benefited by the existing tariff. Almost all engaged in agriculture and all engaged in professional service and trade and transportation are free from foreign competition. The manufacturers of iron, steel, and oil already compete successfully in foreign countries, and need no tariff for their protection against foreign competition. On the other hand, every consumer suffers from the increased price of the articles he buys, which is caused by the present tariff.

We should learn from the freedom of trade between the different States of the Union that trade is a benefit and not an injury; and that when the product of one industry is bought it is paid for in the end by the product of another. This would be equally true if our laws were so framed as to encourage trade with foreign countries instead of prohibiting it as far as possible.

EVERETT P. WHEELER.

New York City.

TOLSTOY: ANOTHER VIEW

So much has already been written concerning Tolstoy that my idea of that great old man can have but little significance unless I can show him in a light from the Russian point of view. Though Tolstoy through his ethical works has created more opposition than any other writer, yet at the same time he has also a greater following. He is to millions in Russia not only a great literary genius, but a worshiped reformer and an immortal saint. He is opposed by all the extreme elements, by the bureaucrats, the clergy, and the Socialists. The cause of the attacks upon him by Gorky, Andrieff, and all the young writers of the kingdom of the Czar is his severe condemnation of Socialism and terror.

Being an individualist, Tolstoy believes in free play for the psychological nature of man, for which reason he is claimed by the Anarchists. Even George Brandes declares that Tolstoy is in harmony with the Anarchistic ideas of Prince Kropotkin, which, however, according to Tolstoy, is a misunderstanding of his moral. In his preachments of love

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and truth he is an individualist. Condemning both revolutionists and reactionaries, he loathes the yoke of party; for he believes that all physical force in social life is brutality and wrong. His opposition to administrative power has often been interpreted into opposition to all law and government. His objection to violence and the view that might makes right has nothing to do with Anarchism.

"Despising the political power which is founded on violence and explosives, the people have misunderstood me," he wrote to an American friend. "The government in which I believe and preach is that which exercises a moral authority. Moses, Buddha, and Christ, these are the great lawgivers, the real sovereigns, who ruled, not by force of guns and armies, but by moral authority, whose government was one of wisdom and love. Just as I hate a hereditary potentate, so do I hate a cheap Parliament, like that we have at the present time in Russia. A government which relies on iron and explosives, which executes a murderer who is so because of insanity or of poverty, and which glorifies the butchery of innocent thousands, is the greatest instrument for wrong, the worst of oppressors. . . . All this shows that government cannot improve the moral nature of man by its political laws, and that brute force always defeats its object. Every law must have the sanction of the free will, for there can be no coercion of the soul."

Of course such views are extremely unpleasant to the Russian officials, and often they have plotted how to get rid of such an antagonist. Many suppose that Tolstoy has so far escaped simply because of his great fame, but there may be another reason.

Count Witte once told me that the King of England had asked the Czar to spare the great novelist, and to let him follow his bent as long as he lives. When I asked Tolstoy if this was true, he replied evasively:

"I am not afraid of any punishment, and would be happy if I might share it with the many martyrs who have suffered for truth and justice. Persecution gives freedom strength, and suffering ennobles and purifies."

The opinion of Gorky is that if Tolstoy had died fifteen years ago it would have been better for his reputation. According to him there are two Tolstoys—one the author of "Anna Karénina," and the other the writer of ethics and the reformer. Once he said to me:

"I love and admire Tolstoy, but at the same time I pity him; for as a reformer and philosopher he is only an amateur and cannot compare with that Tolstoy the artist."

Tolstoy himself, however, does not share this opinion, but simply considers his art period of novel-writing as one of transition to a higher self. What he thinks of himself as an artist and philosopher is best illustrated in one of his private letters to an American friend. Speaking of his "Kreutzer Sonata," he says:

"My dear Friend: Your letter has made me very sad. The dissatisfaction which you say my story has caused is due to the fact that I have dared to speak of love freely, and to assert that marriage should not be entered into for the enjoyment of material pleasures and satisfaction of the passions. In reality I have but little interest in the artistic value of my stories. I cannot live very long, and as I come near to death I think more and more about a new life. My sole concern, then, is so to write that I shall inspire my readers to a better life. If only I had begun to preach love and brotherhood when I first began to write stories, I would have accomplished much more. It was Schopenhauer and the Bible that converted me."

Tolstoy expressed to me also his recognition of the philanthropic work that is done in America, particularly the unostentatious work of Nathan Straus in the distribution of sterilized milk to the poor children, but he does not believe in organized charity, which, he said, is a satire of individual effort to relieve suffering.

I may add to this the opinion in which Tolstoy is held by the royal family of Russia by what I heard from the lips of the Grand Duke Boris while I met him in Finland. I asked him what was the opinion of his uncle, the Czar, as to Tolstoy, and the Grand Duke sneered in reply:

"What, that old blasphemer, with his babbling nonsense! No man of standing cares to read his things. Some of his novels may be good enough, no doubt, but his Majesty would never suffer any one of his court to read them. All his books are excluded from our libraries, and he is extremely disliked by every European ruler. He is a terrible writer."

As a moral preacher Tolstoy's works are excluded also from all the public schools, and the teachers are forbidden to mention the great writer's name to the pupils. Being long ago excommunicated from the Russian Greek Church, the Holy Synod has recently instructed all the clergy that, in case he should die, masses, as usual in Russia, shall not be celebrated on that occasion, and his remains shall be excluded from every sacred soil of a cemetery. I personally happened to hear the sermon of a fanatic priest at Pskoff, who preached to his congregation

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that Tolstoy already had sold his soul for half a million rubles to the devil, with whom he was in perpetual communication.

Tolstoy's preaching has been of greater influence upon the large masses than his art, and this is what has given him his great fame throughout the world. It is true that there is nothing new in his ethics, but all the same it is full of a stimulating inspiration towards higher ideals. I compare Tolstoy with Jean Jacques Rousseau, the great French reformer. What Rousseau did for the French people before the Revolution, that is Tolstoy doing for the Russians, with a difference, that Rousseau was a destructive giant of the rationalistic school, while Tolstoy is one of the religious emotional type. Rousseau's works stimulated the French people to rebellion by stirring up their reason and ambition of action, while Tolstoy's intention is to conquer every social evil by passive resistance; one was a great leader and reformer in his Latin character of influencing the will power, the other's greatness is shown in his Slavic character of influencing the feelings and emotions.

IVAN NARODNY.

Staten Island, New York.

ESPERANTO AT THE PAN-AMERICAN SCIENTIFIC CONGRESS

Permit me to commend the excellent appreciation of the work of the first Pan-American Scientific Congress which appeared in The Outlook of May 8 under the title "A New Phase of Pan-Americanism." It was a well-deserved and timely report of the deliberations of a body of great dignity and importance, which had nevertheless received scant notice from the daily press. But one act of this Congress, which to me, as to many other Americans, seems to rank as the most significant on its record, your article does not even hint at. On January 4 the Congress adopted the following resolutions:

Considering that the Esperanto language is a human blessing, practically used by thousands of people in all the civilized nations; and that it is a factor which aims toward the adoption of the ideals of human happiness, and is therefore of special interest to America, the future field of action of the two great civilizations (Spanish-speaking and English-speaking) which confront each other politically and commercially, the first Pan-American Scientific Congress recommends Esperanto as a neutral international language which deserves an important place in the programmes of primary instruction of the American nations.

Considering that a neutral auxiliary international language is necessary, and observing that the idiom Esperanto fulfills the requirements, that it is already sufficiently widespread throughout the world, and that official propaganda alone is lacking:

(1) The First Pan-American Scientific Congress decides to express to the American Governments the pleasure with which it would view the call for a Congress, to which would come official representatives of all civilized countries, with the purpose of solving the problem of the adoption of a neutral international auxiliary idiom; and

(2) It agrees to urge upon the Government of the United States of North America that, under its grand auspices, this desire of the Scientific Congress may be effected.

Is not the declaration of such a body that Esperanto deserves an important place in our programmes of primary instruction, and that it favors the calling of an international body authorized to adopt an international idiom, worthy of a place in the summary of its deliberations? I believe that, as fair-minded men, you and your readers will agree to this.

V. C. DIBBLE, JR.

Charleston, South Carolina.

NOT AS THEY ARE SPELLED

In a recent "Spectator" were some of the better-known instances of divergence between the spelling and pronunciation of certain English proper names. I find an item containing a fairly full list, taken from the Boston Transcript. Possibly you may like to give the interesting item further currency.

TUDOR JENKS.

The absurd and sometimes extraordinary difference between the spelling and pronunciation of English names has been often commented upon. Several lists have been published, but they are by no means complete. The following, it is believed, are, for the most part, new: Woodnesborough, Winsbro; Woodmancote, Woodmucket; Wymondham, Windam; Yaddlethorpe, Yalthrup; Gainsborough, Gainsberry; Lencoin, Lenkerrin; Grassinton, Girstun; Haddiscoe, Hadsker; Gunthwaite, Gunfit; Eskdale, Ashdale; Brampton Brian, Brawn; Brighthelmstone, Brytun; Hallahon, Horn; Meddlethorpe, Threlthrup; Marylebone, Marrowbone; Ulrome, Ooram; Uttoxeter, Tuxiter; Rampisham, Ransom; Pevensey, Pinsy; Coxwold, Cookwood; Crostwight, Corsit; Holdsworth, Holder; Skiddaw, Skiddy; Kirkcuddbright Kircoobry; Ilkley, Eethla; Hawarden, Hard'n; Alford, Artfold.

Strachan should be pronounced Strawn; Colquhoun is Koohoon, the accent being on the last syllable; Beauchamp is Beacham; Duchesne should be pronounced Dukarn; Bethune should be Beeton; and in Abergavenny the *av* is not sounded. Menzies is pronounced Mynges, Knollys as Knowls, Sandys as Sands, Gower as Gorr, and Milnes as Mills. Dalziel should be pronounced Dee-al, with accent on the first syllable. Glamis is Glarms; Geoghegan should be pronounced Gaygan, and Ruthven is Riven.

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"Must I see my boy grow up wild because I have no money?"

We give below part of the letter from which the above lines are quoted. It's a sample of appeals that come almost every day. It's the tale of the wayward boy and the heartbroken mother.

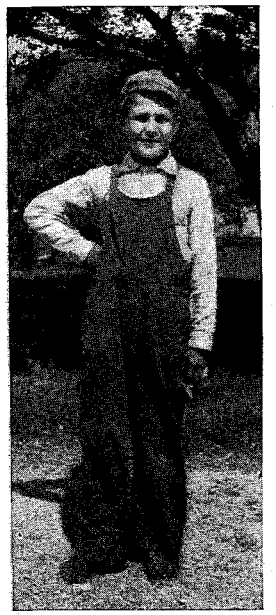
Read the letter.

"I am trying so hard to get our boy into your school at Canaan, but I am not able to pay anything for his support. His Father has been sick for nearly three years, and has not earned one dollar.

"I have worked at most everything in that time, and am run down and not able to do much—the boy, who should be a help and comfort to me, is more of a drawback.

*"Sometimes I feel as if I could not stand it any longer—**must I see my boy grow up wild because I have no money?** I will beg of God to-night, as I never have before, to help me with the burden that begins to feel awful heavy."*

Thousands of mothers have this proposition to face, their boys are wayward. Frequently there is no Father to help and advise. What are they to do? To allow the boy to run loose in the city streets means his ruin. It's a hard problem.



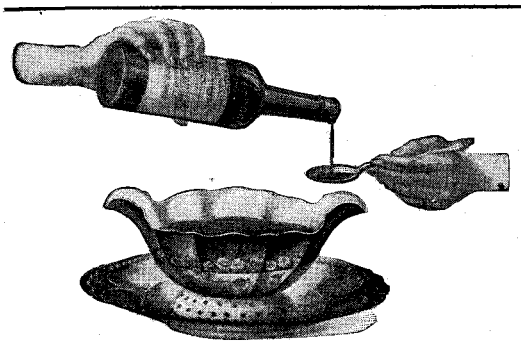
Yet such boys can be made good citizens at very little cost. We have up in New York State, thirty miles east of Albany, a large thousand acre farm. Here we have some eighty boys who have been on the wrong road. They have been sent to us by their parents or guardians. They come for four years. Good behavior counts for a reduction. The average stay is three years.

It costs $200 a year to give a wayward boy the benefit of the moral and spiritual training provided by **The Berkshire Industrial Farm.**

We have many applications from needy boys whose parents can only pay half—many more from those who can pay nothing. These are often the most appealing cases.

Would *you* not like to feel that *you* had helped to save a boy from a downward career? *Let us tell you how it can be done. Send for booklet.*

HARRY HALL, Treasurer
100 William Street, New York



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test the ability of a cook. To insure success use

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SAUCE

THE ORIGINAL WORCESTERSHIRE

Soups, Fish, Steaks, Roast Meats, Chops, Game, Gravies, Welsh Rarebits, Chafing Dish Cooking and Salad Dressings are improved by its use. **Try it!**

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Richest and Purest Milk

from the choicest dairy sections of the United States. From cows properly fed and cared for.

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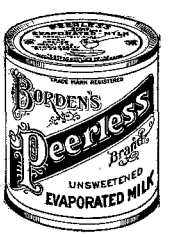
PEERLESS
BRAND EVAPORATED
MILK
(Unsweetened)

Dilute with water to desired consistency and use same as "fresh" milk.



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ECONOMICAL
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Borden's Condensed Milk Co.
"Leaders of Quality"
Est. 1857.

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by this Label

"Porosknit" SUMMER UNDERWEAR

"I'm so glad I insisted on the label. I learned that last summer. This summer I looked for the "Porosknit" label first and I know I got the coolest thing for warmest weather—fit and wearing quality too." Ask your dealer for it.

MEN'S Shirts and Drawers, each 50c. Union Suits $1.00

BOYS' Shirts and Drawers, each 25c. Union Suits 50c

Styles and sizes? In the new booklet. Send for it now.

CHALMERS KNITTING COMPANY

17 Washington Street, Amsterdam, N. Y.

Hall's Hair Renewer

Perfectly satisfied with your hair? Good. But if it's falling out, keeps thin and short, looks dull and lifeless, here is the remedy. Show these ingredients to your doctor and ask him about this preparation.

R. P. HALL & CO., Nashua, N. H.

Ingredients: Glycerin, Sulphur, Capsicum, Borogtycerin, Tea, Alcohol, Rosemary Leaves, Water, Bay Rum, Perfume

DOES NOT COLOR THE HAIR

Excelsior Liquid Polish

A VERY SUPERIOR ARTICLE

For CLEANING and POLISHING
Sterling Silver, Plated Ware,
Plate Glass Windows and Mirrors

—AND—

"Bhot Atcha"

Our Great East Indian FURNITURE POLISH

A fine article for treating fine polished surfaces

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Uric Acid Eliminant

Prevents and Relieves

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6% NET Paid to our Customers for 34 Years. First Mortgage Loans of $200 and up. always on hand. —WRITE TODAY— PERKINS & CO. FINANCIAL BROKERS Lawrence, Kansas.

Please ask for loan list 711.

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MAKING SUNSHINE

It is Often Found in Pure Food

The improper selection of food drives many a healthy person into the depths of despairing illness. Indeed, most sickness comes from wrong food, and just so surely as that is the case right food will make the sun shine once more.

An old veteran of Newburyport, Mass., says: "In October I was taken sick and went to bed, losing 47 pounds in about 60 days. I had doctor after doctor, food hurt me and I had to live almost entirely on magnesia and soda. All solid food distressed me so that water would run out of my mouth in little streams.

"I had terrible night sweats and my doctor finally said I had consumption and must die. My good wife gave up all hope. We were at Old Orchard, Me., at that time and my wife saw Grape-Nuts in a grocery there. She bought some and persuaded me to try it.

"I had no faith in it but took it to please her. To my surprise it did not distress me as all other food had done, and before I had taken the fifth package I was well on the mend. The pains left my head, my mind became clearer, and I gained weight rapidly.

"I went back to my work again and now after six weeks' use of the food I am better and stronger than ever before in my life. Grape-Nuts surely saved my life and made me a strong, hearty man, 15 pounds heavier than before I was taken sick.

"Both my good wife and I are willing to make affidavit to the truth of this."

Read "The Road to Wellville," in pkgs. "There's a Reason."

Ever read the above letter? A new one appears from time to time. They are genuine, true, and full of human interest.

·U-All-No·

·AFTER DINNER MINT·

For an after dinner sweet, for a confection at any time, try this new cream and learn how different a cream mint can be.

The mint flavor is developed to a new degree by our own special process.

Sold in sealed tins by grocers, confectioners and druggists everywhere. If your dealer does not keep U-All-No we will send a liberal box on receipt of ten cents.

MANUFACTURING CO. OF AMERICA
Sole Makers 441 N. 12th St., Philadelphia

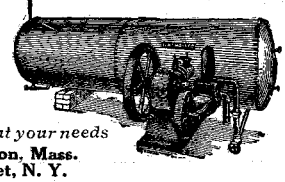
BABY OUTFITS

Made of the "*Arnold*" Fine, Soft Knit fabrics. Win Every Mother's Heart. Photographic Catalog Showing Modern Way of Dressing Baby, Sent Free.

NOVELTY KNITTING CO., 222 Hamilton St., Albany, N. Y.

WATER SUPPLY FOR COUNTRY HOUSES

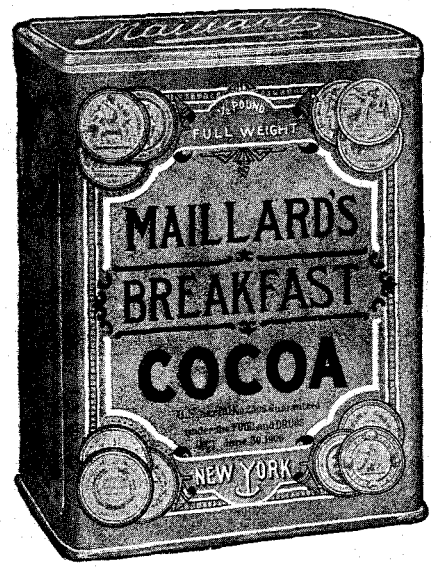
No elevated tank to freeze or leak. Tank located in cellar. Furnished with hand, gasoline, or electric pump. 60 lbs. pressure. The ideal fire protection. Write for Catalogue "50."



Let our Engineers figure out your needs

LUNT-MOSS CO., Boston, Mass.
Branch, 50 Church Street, N. Y.

The Best Cocoa of Them All



Maillard's Breakfast Cocoa. A delicious, appetizing drink, famous for its delicacy, and extreme digestibility. It agrees with everyone, and is highly recommended for invalids and children.

Its special points of superiority are due to the use of the finest, selected beans; and to Maillard's exclusive process of manufacture. Popular for nearly 60 years.

Maillard's Vanilla Chocolate. True Vanilla bean flavoring. Delicious.

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The unique Luncheon Restaurant is a popular resort for Ladies — afternoon tea 3 to 6.

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The vacuum cleaner for the home has proved such a valuable aid to housekeepers,—it has become so popular that a number of hurriedly made, poorly constructed machines have been rushed onto the market.

The idea is right. Vacuum cleaners are one of the greatest advantages perfected in years and they have come to stay. The point is to get a cleaner that will clean.

THE CYCLONE Vacuum Cleaner

has gone through the experimental stage. It is built on scientific principles that have been tried and proven in thousands of homes.

The Cyclone has *no springs*—Large valves make *easy running*. Dust separator can be emptied in half the time of any other. *Simple construction*, means *nothing to get out of order*.

Be sure to get the Cyclone—the machine that works, the machine that is made *for the home* and *at a home price*. Write for free book.

THE CYCLONE VACUUM CLEANER CO.
102-112 Blaisdell Ave., Bradford, Pa.
Agents wanted—write for unoccupied territory

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Prevents Decay
Dentists advise its use.
All Druggists, 25 Cents.
Trial Size Can and Booklet sent on receipt of Five Cents.
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